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ABSTRACT

Papers from an international conference on language teaching/learning are presented by topic and grouped under seven sections. An introductory section contains two papers on cultural diversity and world English. The second section, on teacher development, contains papers on these topics: teacher development and socialization; teachers' responses to questions about instruction; characteristics of a good language lesson; teaching students to understand instruction; students' reasons for poor English skills; cross-cultural aspects of the teacher's role; and an instructional materials development workshop. The third section, on classroom techniques and issues, addresses these topics: postsecondary level cooperative learning in Japan; shared inquiry for fostering critical thinking in English-as-a-Second-Language (ESL) instruction; story grammar as a reading and discussion strategy; use of Japanese literature in reading instruction; multimedia second language reading instruction; vocabulary building; Japanese particle usage; beginning writing instruction; discipline-based technical writing; peer writing evaluation; oral communication instruction; dance as an instructional technique; test revision; and continuous assessment using computer-assisted instruction. In section 4, papers on use of technology in the classroom address: use of the Internet; on-line newspapers and magazines;

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computerized test and materials development; designing materials t accompany videos; and content video in ESL instruction. Papers on cultural issues in section 5 include these topics: multiculturalism in the classroom; comparing cultures through critical thinking; authority and individualism in Japan and the United States; a study trip to France; setting the stage in kindergarten; comparative social studies; folklore in ESL instruction; Model United Nations; global issues; geography instruction; gender issues; and English variation. The final section contains five papers on the Linguapax Program of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). Papers are primarily in English, with some Japanese and French included. (MSE)

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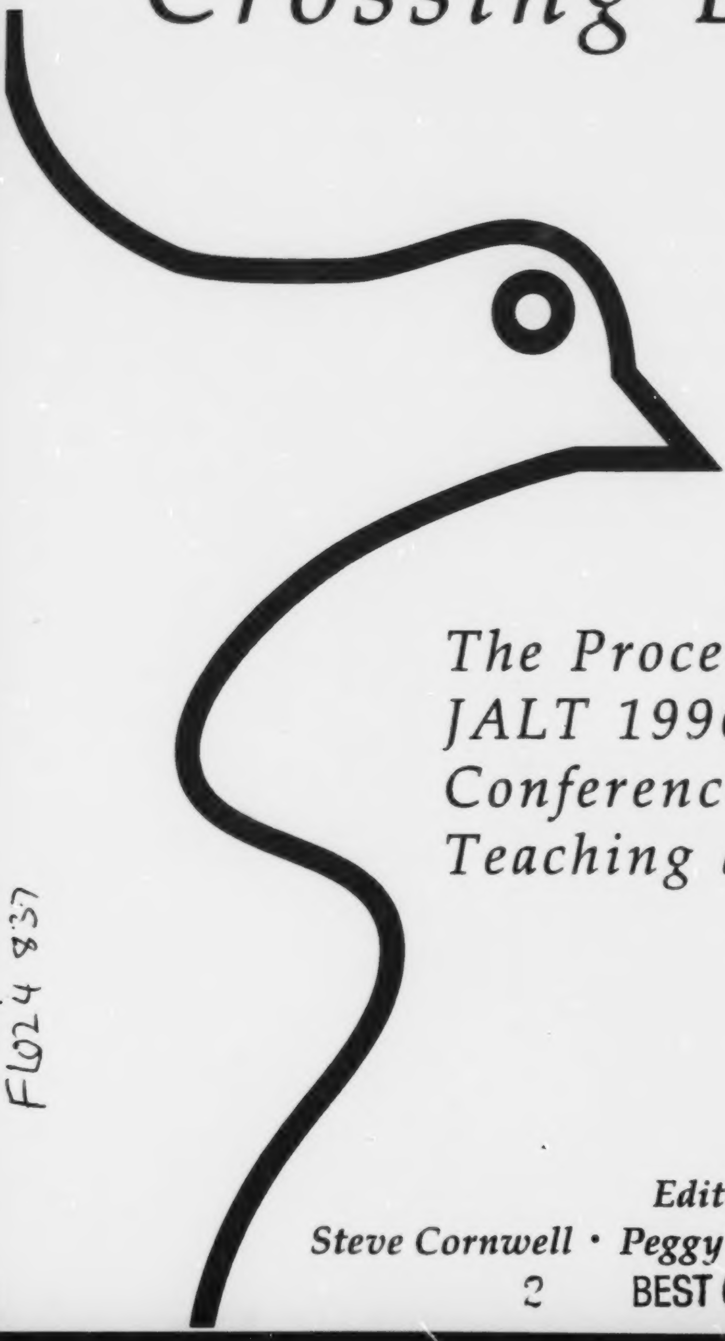
# *On JALT96*
# *Crossing Borders*



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THE

TEACHER

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# On JALT96:
# Crossing Borders

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Hiroshima, Japan
November 1996

**EDITORS**

Steve Cornwell

Peggy Rule

Toshiko Sugino

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# ON JALT96:
# Crossing Borders

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## *Section One*
# Introduction

# Crossing borders: Some values to declare

**Julian Edge**
*Aston University*

I know that many of you will recognise the music that was playing before this talk began: it was a track from the 1989 Ryuichi Sakomoto album, Beauty. The music crossed many borders in the making and has crossed many more in being played. The musicians are from Japan, the USA, and Senegal (at least), and I think that Mexico and Britain are involved, too. With nine hours difference between Japan and Britain, I found the the 'Good Morning/Good Evening' lyric irresistible. And as for, 'Where are you?', the question has been much in my mind of late concerning my family and I've asked it once or twice of myself as I've woken up in beds at several points from Sapporo on south during my exhilarating 'Four Corners of Japan' tour.

The music is meant as an illustration and as a metaphor. It also provides me with a context in which to say that when I heard that the theme of this year's JALT Conference was to be Crossing Borders, my heart sang. I do hope that that response is as widely reported as my now infamous remark on the conference theme, 'Back to Basics' of two years ago, when I admitted that my heart sank.

The idea of border-crossing resonates at so many levels and in so many ways: the physical, the cultural, the political, the geographical, the psychological, the social, the personal - and that is without even beginning to consider what might be seen as the core, professional borders of language and pedagogic style which we cross daily in our necessarily cross-cultural TESOL activities.

Honoured as I am by the invitation to speak to conference as a whole, I see it as a responsibility to attempt to address this many-faceted theme. Before I do, however, let us spend a few more moments in consideration of the function and force of this talk of mine. What is the point of plenary talks? What are you hoping for from this one? What are you expecting? Please take just thirty seconds of our time together to think about it.

Let me now give you my perspective. I have been involved in TESOL since 1969. Typical of my age and nationality, I entered TESOL without proper training and with no real sense of vocation for teaching as a career. In defence of that dual admission, I think it is fair to say that not many people had much of a clue at that time about what a proper training for TESOL might look like, and that the passing time has shown quite clearly and sometimes cruelly that the idea of a "career" in TESOL is not something that a person like myself should rely on. There has been a succession of fixed-term jobs punctuated by relatively short periods of unemployment. I have been lucky.

When I sketch that background, I identify myself as one of those people who have earned a living travelling from one country to another, working in other people's education systems. This is a background which some people here will be able to relate to easily, and some not. All we can do at this point is to be clear about that fact, and hope that the clarity helps people with very different backgrounds decide to what extent what I have to say is of interest or relevance to them.

I am trying to put into practice here a lesson I learnt over many years. At one stage of my work, I did indeed go to other people's countries and tell them how they should teach English. Some were enthusiastic about what they heard. When they were not, I took their lack of enthusiasm for the methodological suggestions I brought as a lack of understanding, or lack of vision, or lack of desire to keep up with the times. I don't do that anymore.

I find that my statements have lost their "should". I find that I am much more committed to trying to understand the way things are, and in showing how I (and sometimes others) have gone about finding out how things are, for ourselves, in different places, at different times. I am committed to the idea of development; I am also convinced that we have, in the past, too frequently concentrated on new goals and directions, without paying enough attention to the building of a proper understanding of the way things actually are, from our own perspectives, and from the perspectives of those with whom we live and work. The next step in our own appropriate development will arise from that understanding, and is neither feasible nor desirable without it.

Let me also say, in passing, that I have enough of a sense of self-irony to hear in what I am saying the difference between the opinions of a young man and a middle-aged man. Quite certainly. That is who I am. That is what I have to offer. All this is really quite insidious. No one can put up resistance to this, because I'm not suggesting anything. Everyone has to take full responsibility for deciding whether what I have to say is of use or relevance to them - and they are all right.

This talk is in that mode. I am going to give your theme my best shot. And then it's up to you. This isn't about generalisations, or generalisability, this is personal.

I want to pick up two aspects of the border-crossing theme: one is a personal/ professional narrative, and the other is a geographical/cultural meditation. As you would expect, and because our discourse expectations speak us, just as we speak them, I shall bring the two themes together at the end of the talk.

## A personal/professional narrative

I'm 48 now. Born a Rat on the first day of the Year of the Rat, 10 February 1948. Nineteen forty-eight. That's a long time ago. The first twelve-year cycle of this particular Rat was as a child in the post-war industrial midlands of England. It was all about being a child in a loving family.

The second cycle was about getting an education the like of which no one in my family had ever had. Those were probably the most difficult borders I ever crossed, because there was no one to come back and warn me about the particular rites of passage involved, and I wasn't mature or sophisticated enough to know about the available records, from Great Expectations to Room at the Top. I remember very clearly losing my childhood, neighbourhood friends because I passed the examination for the clever ones, and went to the posh school on the other side of the city. And I remember particularly well one teacher who made fun of those of us who gave away, when we spoke, just where we came from. It is only with hindsight that I select a coherence for this narrative, but it provides for me a strong, personal reminder of the losses and hurt involved in some border-crossings which one does not, at the same time, in any way regret. The resonances with foreign language learning are clear to me. The challenge is to extend one's identity without losing it. That is also where and when I learned about the value of unconditional love, as my parents supported me through the outcomes of my decisions, right and wrong, about issues none of us understood too well.

The third cycle was about learning to be a husband. It also brought me well into TESOL and becoming, first, a language teacher, then a language teacher who wanted to investigate more about what it was that I had gotten into, and then a language teacher involved in teacher training. It was also about learning to live in different countries and cultures, thus acquiring a perspective on, and a dislocation from, my own country and culture which has remained with me. This feeling was captured for me very powerfully recently by a short poem of Earl Stevick's (1996) which I'd like to read to you:

> In firelight all of us sat
> down together, spoke
> without holding back our
> thoughts, either our first

thoughts or our deepest.
The ashes cooled till we
could sift them through
our fingers.
Then in the new morning
sun we stretched and stood
to take our homeward
paths but found not one.

My fourth cycle was very much to do with learning to be a father. It was spent living in Britain and travelling from it, and I was striving to live, in Edward Said's (1993:385) expression, not in the nation, but in the world. I discovered action research, and realised that that term captured my aspirations to forge understanding out of practice. It helped me make sense of my conviction that, as teachers, we do not need theories to apply in practice, so much as we need ways to explore and understand - to theorise, in fact - what our experience is trying to teach us. I stopped seeing academics as necessarily useless wallies, because I realised that some people now saw me as an academic.

And I have a reasonably clear view of the sixth cycle. I honestly feel that, all things being equal, I shall want to find out much more about gardening before I get too old to do it.

You may have noticed that I missed out the fifth cycle. That is now. That's what makes it difficult. We can reinvent the past, through the mysterious, constructive process known as memory, in order to make it and ourselves coherent. We can do the same for the future, through the mysterious, constructive process known as imagination. But the present makes different demands, and I want to face up to them. with you. now.

In one version of this story, I have crossed professional borders from being a teacher, to being a teacher trainer, to being an academic. I acknowledge that version of the story, although it doesn't feel like that to me. I live more happily in a version of my role more like the one a graduate of our master's program at Aston sent me just before I left Britain a few weeks ago. He said that now he was more involved in teacher training, he found that the work we had done together on our own development as teachers was having a definite effect. It was as though there were an unbroken chain between his work with me, his work with the teachers, and their work with their learners.

The continuity expressed there is one that I relate to, because it coheres to what I have elsewhere (Edge 1996b) called the development parameter. What is important to me in my narrative is that it should be a continuing story of personal and professional empowerment; the borders which other people's tellings impose on my life interest me, they may describe me, but they don't express me.

Let me focus for a few minutes on this term, Empowerment. It is, I know, a rather passé term in some circles, and it has certainly been more abused than some. Let me say a few words about what I mean by it:

My best attempt to break down the composite meaning of empowerment produces four aspects: authority, ability, responsibility and respect.

By authority, I don't mean power over others, I mean to emphasise the 'author' part of the word. I mean making sure that I am doing what I can in my context to be the author of my own life.

In order to do this increasingly, I want to improve my abilities in those areas where I feel that my growth will enhance my sense of self-authorship.

This growth must take place in a way which is socially responsible and, as I take on more responsibility for my actions, I also want to claim more responsibility for their outcomes, which I need to inform myself about.

As I come to formulate my own decisions, and find my own way, I do so in the realisation that my right to reach personal conclusions can be protected only by a respect for the rights of others to reach different conclusions.

There is no issue here of hierarchies of status of employment. That is not what empowerment, as I am using the term, is about. My empowerment might have taken many forms; some of them would have involved my remaining committed to full-time language teaching, and some of them would have meant my leaving language teaching altogether. Nor am I saying that empowerment necessarily involves some kind of action research, or that an investigative approach to teaching is the best way to be a teacher. I am observing that, as a person-who-teaches, this search for ongoing empowerment is one way of living. (I have to note in passing that Huberman's (e.g. 1989) research into teachers' lives suggests that it is those teachers who have neither stuck to what they learned in early training, nor become involved in radical experiments who reach the end of their working lives with the greatest sense of satisfaction, and the least signs of burnout or cynicism. These are the people who have quietly "tinkered" with their teaching, sometimes questioning the ends and always trying out variations on the means.)

Intellectually, if we are attracted by the domain of academic debate, we can see this position as being in tune with post-modern thinking about the human situation. We have turned away from the search for grand explanations of life, the universe, and everything (including Second Language Acquisition), and work rather as intellectual/cultural bricoleurs, improvising responses in situations which need to be understood from the inside. As Gore (1993:49) puts it:

> ..... It seems to me that there is something about the educational enterprise that leads to the local, partial, and multiple foci of poststructural theories: there is something about the lives of those in classrooms, as well as the lives of social "classes", about activities that deal with people as thinking, feeling individuals, that requires the phenomenological, personal accounts of multiplicity and contradiction that are beginning to emerge in the work of feminist poststructuralists in education.

At the same time, we do not have to approach our teaching only, or perhaps even most importantly, as an intellectual issue. At the heart of this work are the values that we express in the work that we do. I should like to suggest that some of those core values are, for me at least, connected with issues of: Diversity, Inquiry and Cooperation.

Diversity . . . because we have ceased to believe that there is a single best way of learning a foreign language, or of teaching one - not because of a failure of method or of research, but because it is a wild goose chase, a misunderstanding of what is involved, the wrong question.

Inquiry . . . because this absence of a single best way commits us to the idea of continually investigating our work in order to try to understand it better.

Cooperation . . . because in order to increase one's understanding of a human process, such as teaching, one needs to cooperate as closely as possible with the people involved in that process: our students and colleagues.

And, once again, this approach can be built only in a context of respect for others, whose diverse cooperative investigations will lead them onto different paths.

Here is where I have to shift from a focus on personal/professional issues to geographical/cultural ones.

## A geographical/cultural meditation

How well do these values which we have discussed cross geographical and cultural borders? Let me share with you some reports from teachers in different settings. They are all teachers with whom I have worked over the last few years. I asked them to comment on their experiences in response to the question: To what extent is an approach based on self-development and respect for individual difference appropriate across cultures?

What I want to show you today are some extracts from the raw data of initial responses. They are not interpreted, or part of an argument as such. Nor are they comfortably positive. I offer them here because they do allow the voices of these teachers into this discourse, and give at least an indication of the reality of the question to people who teach and come to terms with their lives in different parts of the world. As you listen to them, I invite you to use your imagination and your understanding, and to try to see things the way they do.

### From eastern Europe, two responses from westerners working there:

1. As a teacher, I do not think one can pronounce oneself committed to non-

interference in another's belief system; merely stating new facts, one's opinion, or making new information available, interferes .....

Within the first year of teaching here, I strongly believed my "learner autonomy" approach did not suit all learners and, as my colleague began to teach in the same way, I felt some pupils suffered. It threatened their security and disempowered them. She later reverted and again some pupils suffered for being too honest, although she had encouraged it. .....

I have given up speaking out, withdrawn into myself and do not even do my own thing to my own satisfaction.

2. So this was a bit of a paradox. New methodology was seen largely as ideas and gimmicks, rather than a real shift of responsibility for learning from the teacher to the learner. In a culture where personal responsibility has for so long been anathema, there is a large degree of ambivalence: Yes, give us the new, but only at a shallow level, because we are used to being able to blame others if things don't work.

### From an Irish person working on the western European mainland:

In my own context, I feel that the greatest threat to teacher development are the economic forces which are leading schools to cut educational corners and emphasise the "service industry" aspect of EFL. We are being led (?) further away from mainstream education into a vicious competition for students (customers) with at the same time an erosion of teachers' salaries and working conditions. Professional self-development will understandably take a back seat if teachers feel that they are being exploited and that they cannot aspire to a quality of life commensurate with their qualifications and contribution to society.

### From a Chinese teacher educator returned to China:

The rough picture I've got in my mind now is a three-stage program: General Lecture stage, Group Seminar stage, and Cooperative Development stage.

During the first stage, some open lectures covering a wide range of topics were given mainly by the British lecturer on the project and attended by all the departmental staff who were interested in those topics. ......

The second stage tended to move away from an all-purpose lecture form to some more concentrated areas. Usually, teachers who taught the same course or had the same interest met in small groups to discuss in detail things they were all concerned about. At this stage, the input, or resource, was not only provided by the "foreign expert" but also the returned Chinese counterparts who had been trained in Britain. .....

Now, it's time for the third stage, Cooperative Development At this final stage of the teacher education program, the format is narrowed down from a small group to an individual. ..... During the third stage, teachers would like to go even deeper into some specific issues which they may not want to share with too many people, but just one or two whom they trust and would like to talk over in depth.

### And from an American, long-term resident in Japan:

I was in Kenya this summer and had a conversation with a Japanese man living in Nairobi and an Englishwoman visiting from where she is living in Japan. So all of us were ex-pats. The concept of universal values came up and I was amazed to find the Japanese man so "tolerant" towards other cultures that he could condone ANY behaviour based on the cultural context (it began with wife-beating). My self-confidence wavered for an instant as I questioned my own level of "I'm OK, you're OK". And then I thought, NO! There IS such a thing as absolute WRONG regardless of culture. Who is wrong, the western doctor who refuses to circumcise an African adolescent female, or the mother who demands the surgery? Is the doctor culturally insensitive or humanistic? .....

The issues are not simple, nor do I quote these individuals in order either to agree or disagree with them. They are authentic individual statements, not generalisations, from the voices of committed professionals involved in the struggle for values they believe in, while trying to understand the contexts in which they work. As such, they demand respect.

What they also make very clear is the way in which considerations of values impact directly on pedagogy, on what happens in classrooms. At the risk of being over-simplistic, one could say that the often heard cry of the teacher of English, 'Now I want you to get into groups,' can only be properly understood if it is seen as implicating a set of underlying values which would include the following:

- People can learn from each other, they do not always need aleader or teacher.
- Developing an ability to work autonomously is important.
- The process of working things out together is more important than knowing any single correct answer.
- There may be no correct answer.
- You can solve your own problems by defining them, gathering the relevant information, and sharing it constructively.

These are values which, if expressed openly and acted on outside the classroom, could get a person into serious trouble in many countries. It is not a coincidence that TESOL has developed a methodological approach based on these values. Nor, I suggest, is it so much as a result of SLA research as it is an expression of the way that we want to live. Who is this, "we"? Well, anyone who wants to sign up to these values. Is this ideological neo-imperialism? Well, it's not far off.

If you find that I'm going too far here, you might, at a quieter moment, like to read a (1993) paper by Earl Stevick called Social meanings for how we teach.

He goes through two possible ways of using a picture-plus-dialogue piece of material, and draws out the kinds of subliminal message which learners might receive from the variations in method. In one case, the message might be along the lines that

- Someone has decided that it is good for me to learn these forms by copying them.
- Any contribution from my life or experience is going to get in the way of efficient learning.
- The teacher and the book are the sources of knowledge and power.
- The most important issues here are accuracy and correctness.
- Another approach might be more likely to suggest:
- My experience and knowledge is important here.
- My creativity is valued by my teacher and my colleagues.
- I shall have to take some responsibility for evaluating my progress.
- Making mistakes is OK, and I can learn from them.

Of course, one cannot simply tie values to techniques, but values will find their expression, some approaches will be more amenable than others, and there is a cumulative effect of the regular practice of what becomes 'usual.'

My point is that I can see why some people would call work in this latter mode an attempt to introduce disruptive values into other people's societies. We may talk about a "free market", but there is not much freedom for individuals or countries at the present historical moment about whether or not to learn English. The commercial and military facts of life suggest that it is a sensible means to one's own ends.

And to the extent that English is taught in the ways devised and spread by the travelling TESOL community, and others trained in its ways, the teaching will either introduce the values on which it has been based, or it will make no sense and wither away. I believe that we see both outcomes all around us.

A difficulty for me is that, once again, I am who I am and, as a person-who-teaches, this necessarily value-laden approach is what I have to offer. I want to work sensitively with people from other cultures, with other values, and I am certainly prepared to amend my teaching in order to make it acceptable (indeed, comprehensible) to people from other backgrounds. Obviously, if I think I am sending signals which are meant to encourage creativity, in a situation where students are understanding that I am a teacher who is not properly in control of what they are supposed to be doing, I am not working well as any kind of teacher. But it is likely that, whatever 'compromises' (note the word) I make in order to teach, I shall probably also be working to move the students in a direction which will allow me to be the best teacher which I believe I can be. I mean that to be understood as an admission, not as a boast. I hope to learn more. In the meantime, I hope that the open declaration of my values, and the linking of them with my teaching, will protect me against the charge of covert cultural neo-imperialism which I would otherwise acknowledge as justified. I declare the values - I can't really do any more.

These are certainly not straightforward questions and, moreover, some borders are more difficult than others.

I cannot pretend that there are not borders here which I will not cross. In our own field of operation, for example, I cannot extend my respect to people who would justify the killing of a translator because they felt that the book he translated was offensive to their religious beliefs, as was the fate of Professor Hitoshi Igarashi following the translation of The Satanic Verses. I regard his death to be a marker on the single most important cross-cultural border of my lifetime. In fact, even in this city of peace, I feel constrained to identify it as a potential battle line. Nor can I respect an attitude which attempts the covert export of ideology or religion under the cloak of language teaching - it seems to me that a test of one's sincerity is the explicit transparency of one's purpose.

These are not comfortable things to say, but I find it necessary to be honest about the border-crossings of which I am not capable, if I am to make sincere claims about the border-crossings of which I am.. We attempt to respect diversity as we meet it, and we attempt also to find the courage and the means, in Edward Said's (1994:63) resonant phrase, to 'speak truth to power.'

My map, then, is perhaps finally bounded by a sense of respect for difference and by transparency of purpose. I do not want to cross that boundary and live in areas where versions of truth, reality and correctness are decided by others, and then imposed on the rest of the population. I don't want to cooperate with people who pretend to be have one purpose in mind, but are secretly, in fact, committed to another. I am very keen to go on communicating with all these people. I believe that I can come to understand the situation better. But if the people I am communicating with believe that they already have all the answers, or that effective communication is possible without transparency of purpose, then the negotiations will be difficult. These are two of my limitations.

Still on my map, I have a terrain of borders between groups of people with different values and traditions, purposes and ways, who are nevertheless united by a respect for diversity, a desire to understand more, and a willingness to cooperate (Edge 1996a). This is where my personal narrative and my cross-cultural meditation come together.

## In-between-ness

In his quietly profound and elegant book, A Little Search For A Better World As A Basis for Education, Shigeki Kato writes that (1988:i) 'An idea is none the less valuable for being told again so long as it is of true value.'

I have no doubt that the idea I wish to repeat to you is of true value; you will have to judge how well I tell it, and the appropriacy of the telling.

Our prevailing image of crossing borders is of moving from one area, or stage to another. That is certainly the way I have used the expression so far. Yet a great deal of contemporary writing on culture (e.g. Bhabha 1994, Maclure 1996, Said 1993: 395-408) stresses the importance of in-between-ness, of new hybrids which do not resolve themselves in terms of either-or-ness. The musicians whom we heard at the beginning of this talk did not come together in order to play Japanese, or Senegalese, or American music; they came together in order to shift the location of culture out of those old settings. As I have already said, I live somewhat dislocated from the culture that originally produced me, and I like it here. I feel empathy with those who live in the spaces between borders, and work to dissolve those borders, as well as with those who cross them.

Whether we see ourselves as taking on one of these roles or both, it is in these border areas that we, by definition, live and work. As human beings, we cross borders in order to do that work. As teachers, let us pause to think of our title once more: crossing borders focuses less on borders to be crossed, or borders having been crossed, than on the process of crossing, the brief verbal act caught up in an eternity of nominalisation. The inspirational image which comes to my mind is that of the bodhisattva known in Japan, I believe, as Mi-kaeri Kannon. As I know the story, having achieved enlightenment, she paused on the threshold of nirvana and looked back. Empathising with the rest of humanity left behind, she remained (and remains) there, on the threshold, not quite crossing over, in order to ensure that the gateway remains open for others. Probably the most transcendent vision of in-betweenness that we have available.

I am not so presumptuous as to suggest that we can hold open the gates of heaven, but I am attracted by our potential role in keeping open, and sometimes perhaps even helping to dissolve the borders on earth. That is the old idea I wished to repeat, and the image with which I should like to leave you.

Thank you.

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# Opening Borders with World Englishes: Theory in the classroom

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## Introduction[1]

In the title of this paper I am using the dynamic metaphor "opening borders" in a specific sense consistent with my earlier conceptualization of world Englishes. The concept of "opening borders" with world Englishes is not quite identical to how this metaphor has been used in current debate in, for example, the USA. When Lawrence W. Levine addresses this issue, in his *The Opening of the American Mind* (1996), he is essentially providing arguments against the positions of, for example, Allan Bloom's *The Closing of the American Mind* (1987) and a series of such books by D'Souza (1991), Bennett (1992) and Bernstein (1994)—to name just three.

I would like to provide arguments for the use of the fast-increasing body of world Englishes as a resource, as a key, to crossing borders and barriers of various types—cultural, linguistic, ethnic, and social. This important dimension of English is, I believe, relevant to the major focus of this year's JALT Convention.

There are also pragmatic and ideological dimensions to world Englishes: these are ***multicanonicity*** and ***multiculturalism***. These two important components are not generally being articulated in our profession. There is a variety of ideological, economic, and political motivations for that lack of attention. This ominous silence is particularly marked in what Susan Butler has called "the ELT empire" (1996).

In what has been called the post-Imperial period, the ELT Empire has acquired unparalleled power. There are now several serious and well-documented studies which discuss how various active strategies are used to sustain, stabilize, and maintain that power (see, e.g., Kachru 1986a and 1986b, Pennycook 1994, Phillipson 1992, Tollefson 1995, Tsuda 1994a and 1994b).

But turning to the various dimensions of the multicanonicity and multi-culturalism of world Englishes and their relevance to opening borders, I have in mind the following:

- The cross-cultural and pluricentric functions of English;
- The concept "speech community" of English, which is erroneously believed to be essentially monolithic, but in reality is pluralistic;
- The broad theoretical frameworks that were traditionally used for defining language acquisition, language transfer, and language acculturation; and
- The relationship of this altered conceptualization to pedagogical goals and to the ELT profession.

This indeed is a broad canvas. I will only peripherally touch the issues that these dimensions of English raise. There is now an increasing body of conceptual and empirical studies which bring African, Asian, and other perspectives to this debate.

I am using the term "borders" in the rather specific sense of the barriers which stand between us and *other*. And here *other* may be defined in linguistic, cultural, and, indeed, ideological terms. These characteristics create, as we have seen, psychological, attitudinal, and other borders—both real and imaginary. It is these borders which are difficult to cross over. The difficulties are partly imaginary, and to a large extent motivated by underlying ideological, conceptual reasons. But there is more to it. There are issues of power and economic interests involved here. We should not ignore the fact that, as *The Times* (24 Oct. 1989, p.14) reported, "Britain's real black gold is not North sea oil, but the English language. . . ." Britain is "selling English by the pound" (ibid). And the USA and Australia are not far behind in this commercialism.

Let me consider the specific case of Japan. In Japan, when the demand is made for "internationalization," the underlying motivation is to find means to cross the borders of the types I just mentioned—to open intellectual windows, as it were, to let ideas of other cultures come into Japan, to establish channels of understanding and communication across cultures.

And the search for discovering a "key" to initiate such linguistic cross-over is not only recent. As we know, it is this search for a "key" for cross-cultural and crosslinguistic communication that has motivated proposals for a variety of constructed artificial languages.

In the past, various visionaries have constructed over six hundred such languages, which include Esperanto (1887) by a Polish physician; Volapük (1880) by a German bishop; Ido (1907) by a French logician; Interlingua by an Italian mathmatician; and Novial by the Danish linguist Otto Jesperson. And such attempts have not as yet been abandoned, the latest one being Lincos, "a language for cosmic intercourse" (Freudenthal 1960, B. Kachru 1992 [2nd Ed.]). What actually has happened, however, is that, in spite of this bounty of proposals, we have failed to develop such a "culture-free" artificial language.

There is, however, one *natural* language which has now acquired that cross-cultural identity—that is English, the linguistic "key" which is being used for opening borders. At some places, and by some, this border-crossing is done with exhilaration and with excitement. At other places, cross-cultural use of English is carried on with agony, and because of some pragmatic necessity and the success promised by the language. One thing, however, is clear: that English has acquired cultural identities which no other language has acquired in the past.

And with such functions of English, the linguistic center of the language has already moved—slowly, gradually, but certainly—from its former major linguistic epicenter, from its traditional center of creativity, of innovations and, I might add, of authority of codification.

And now we—all of us—can use this key for crossing cultural and linguistic borders, but only if we make a distinction between English as a medium and English as a repertoire of pluralism. A repertoire of ideologies, of ways of life and living in distinctly different cultural contexts, and of thought patterns and creativities—and, indeed, of innovations which articulate various types of cross-overs: the African, the Asian, the South and North American, and the East European.

The medium refers to the form of the language, and the messages are those of diverse cross-cultural functions. However, it is the medium—the linguistic form—that has undergone the process of internationalization. The medium has acquired diverse and multiple functional conventions; it has acquired new meanings by its functions in diverse traditions and cultures—in Asia, in Africa, and in other parts of the world. And when we say that English is "global," or "international," or "universal," what we are indeed referring to is the repository of diversity: It is in this sense that English is British, Scottish, American, Singaporean, Indian, Philippino and, yes, Japanese.

What we share as members of the international English-using speech community is the medium—the vehicle for the transmission of the pluralistic messages of Englishes. We use the phonetic medium when we speak to each other. We use the graphic medium when we write to each other. The medium *per se*, however, has no constraints on what message—cultural, social, or ideological—we transmit through it. And through this shared medium we transmit multiple culturally constructed messages and diverse views on life and values.

When we call English an *international* medium, what we mean is that those who use English across cultures have a shared code of communication. The medium provides, as it were, shifting "grids" through which we gain access to a variety of Western and non-Western cultures, ideologies, mythologies, philosophies, and other sociocultural contexts. We see this acculturation of the medium in, for example, West African varieties of English. In this region, as Okara says, English is used "to express our own ideas, thinking and philosophy in our own way" (1963: 15-16).

This code is used and molded on its users' terms. We indeed share in our uses of English a large inventory of the sound system, the vocabulary, and the syntax. The result of this shared competence is that, in spite of various types of differences, we believe that we communicate with each other—one user of English with the other—the Australian with an Indian, a Japanese with a German, and a Singaporean with a North American. It is in this broad sense of intercultural interlocutors that we have one language, one medium, and multiple voices; as India's C.D. Narasimhaiah says, "English has been an effective aid to thinking globally while choosing to live locally. . ." (1991: viii).

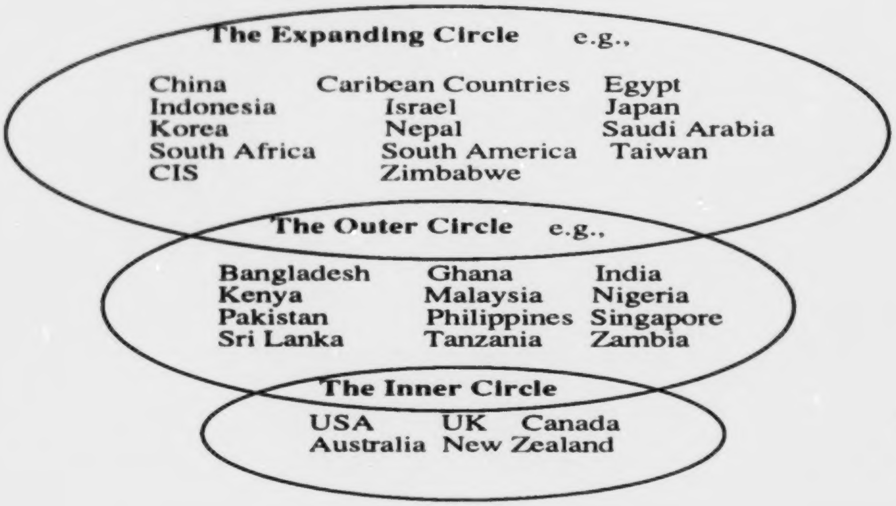
I have characterized the users of English in terms of the following three Concentric Circles (see Kachru 1985 and later).

## Pluricentricity and Interculturalism

There are indeed serious implications of the above conceptualization of English in the world context. One major, and far-reaching, implication is the PLURICENTRICITY of the language. That is, English has a multiplicity of norms—both endocentric and exocentric—multiple identities in creativity, and distinct sociolinguistic histories and contexts for function. In other words, it is now more apt to use the term "Englishes" than "English." The speech community of English is, then, of two broad types. I have labeled these as *norm-providing* and *norm-dependent*.

In the first group one traditionally included, for example, the USA, the UK, and Australia. Now—and this is important—one has to include the varieties of English which are used essentially as *additional* languages—additional to one, two, or more other languages, as in India, Nigeria, Singapore, Malaysia, the Philippines. The pluricentricity of English is, of course, not unique. There are, indeed, several other languages of wider communication which share this characteristic with English, e.g., Arabic, Chinese, Hindi, and Korean. The pluricentricity of English, however, as

**Three Concentric Circles of Englishes**



compared with that of other languages of wider communication, is unprecedented and overwhelming in linguistic history. Its nonnative users are substantially more than numerous than its native users.

The spread of English and its intercultural uses raise daunting questions concerning diversification, codification, identities, cross-cultural intelligibility, and power and ideology. The increasing power of English has rightly been equated with the proverbial Aladdin's lamp—a medium that opens doors to other cultures, a repository of functions and ideologies with no regional frontiers.

The language is used internationally, and in that sense it is an *international* language. But that term is somewhat misleading. These international uses have not resulted in an international variety of English: There is no *International English*. Earlier proposals for such an INTERNATIONAL ENGLISH—structurally simplified and culturally neutral—actually did not go very far—e.g., Basic English, Nuclear English, and Utilitarian English. Thus, the pluralistic vision of English is in its international culturally constructed *functions*, not in a homogeneous international *form*.

The unprecedented nature of the diffusion of English, as compared with that of other languages of wider communication—past and present—is in its unique global profile. Its major characteristics are:

- that there are now at least four nonnative speakers of English for every native speaker who use English as a second or an additional language—third, fourth, and so on;
- that, in the Outer Circle, India is the third-largest English-using country, with over 40 million English users using English as an additional language;
- that, in the Expanding Circle, China has over 200 million EFL users with some competence in English;
- that extensive creativity in English in various literary genres exists on every continent;
- that almost every major town in Anglophone Asia and Africa has at least one newspaper in English and a local radio station transmitting news in English;
- that, in various parts of the world, English has standard (educated) *local* varieties (acrolects), and a range of other varieties (mesolects), and "mixed" varieties with specific names (e.g., basilect, Nigerian pidgin, Singlish, Tex-Mex, Bazaar English); and
- that the initiatives in planning, administration, and funding for the spread of bilingualism in English is essentially in the hands of local people.

It is, indeed, obvious that this global profile of English distinguishes it from other languages of wider communication.

## Medium vs. Messages

This pluralism of the language has come at a price: And how high the price is depends on whom one talks to. There is an articulate group who agonize over the recognition of the multiculturalism and multiple identities of the language. Their concern is that the language is drifting from its exclusive Eurocentric, Judeo-Christian, and Western identity. Henry Louis Gates, Jr. is warning us about such people when he says that cultural pluralism "is not, of course, everyone's cup of tea" (Gates, Jr. 1992: xvi). It certainly is not the cup of tea of "vulgar cultural nationalists" such as Allan Bloom and Leonard Jeffries, who "correctly identify it as the enemy." Gates, Jr. has more to say:

> These polemicists thrive on absolute partitions: between "civilization" and "barbarism," between "black" and "white," between a thousand versions of Us and Them. But they are whistling in the wind.

The "cultural nationalists" are reacting against the variety of the faces—the colors—of English users from various regions, againt those who use the language with varied competencies and associate it with diverse canons. These faces are not dormant and inarticulate; they are articulate in giving their own meanings to English; they use

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English in their own socialization processes and with well-defined agendas.

These "loose canons," as Gates, Jr. characterizes them, invoke reactions of various types, and the result is what we see now: "culture wars," and strategies for domination. These come in various forms, one such form in Japan being "The English conversation ideology" (*eikaiwa*). I have discussed this in detail elsewhere (Kachru 1996).

## Dimensions Of Pluralism And Expansion Of The Canon

One might ask: Why is it important that ELT specialists in JALT and other professional organizations recognize these dimensions of pluralism and multicanonicity of English? I believe that the interculturalism of English—its contacts and convergences—is unique in linguistic history.[2] The cross-cultural functions have altered the traditional regions of contact for English in a very marked way: These are now not only German, French, Italian, and Spanish, but include Chinese, Hausa, Hindi, Japanese, Malay, Tagalog, Thai, Yoruba, and so on (see B. Kachru 1994c).

The infusion of pluralistic linguistic energy in the language does not come only from its traditional linguistic partners—French, German, Italian, and a host of Scandinavian languages. The altered circumstances—historical, cultural, political, and linguistic—have opened up the language, as it were, to the non-Western world: a world of cultural and linguistic contexts entirely alien to the earlier sociocultural and linguistic history of the language. It is here that West Africa, East Africa, South Asia, West Africa, and the Philippines—to name just a handful of regions—become relevant to the confluence and expanding interculturalism of English. That is how varied streaks of pluralism have been added to the language. We see this indeed in Africa's Nguõgiõ wa Thiong'o, Wole Soyinka, Nuruddin Farah, Chinua Achebe, and Buchi Emecheta; in Caribbean's Sam Selvon, Roy Heath; in South Asia's Mulk Raj Anand, Raja Rao, Anita Desai, Bapsi Sidhwa, Shashi Tharoor, and Rohinton Mistry; in East Asia's Edwin Thumboo, Shirley Lim, Lloyd Fernando, and Cathrine Lim; in New Zealand's Witi Ihimaera; in North America's Rolando Hinojosa, and Sandra Cisneros; and Scotland's James Kelman. This is what I mean by multicultural strands and innovations—the canvas is large and includes an abundance of cultures and types of creativity in one medium—English. The question is: Does this dimension of world Englishes reflect in our "ELT Empire", in our curricula, in our conceptualizations, and in our teacher training?

There is nothing intrinsic in the language—in English—that made it "intercultural" or "multicultural." That change in the functions of English was not even on the educational or political agenda of the colonizers. That, of course, is another story, and I will not go into it here. The language acquired its intercultural components from its uses by many different groups on distant continents, for diverse cultural and interactional needs. With each new context of use, English gained new identities. Once these identities were institutionalized, the distance between one canon and another canon of English became larger and larger. Thus, the intercultural identities of English are not always the result of conscious planning. However, the consequence of such intercultural identities has been the internationalization of the language.

## Exponents Of The Institutionalization Of Pluralism

The intercultural identities of English are expressed in many subtle ways, one overlapping with the other, and each contributing to distinct canons within one shared medium, which also manifests various cultural and linguistic identities—Asian and African. We have to be aware of these exponents of English as a key to crossing borders. We have to be aware of four major exponents of such *distinctiveness* in order to bring out the intercultural identities of the language.

The first exponent is *variety specific nomenclature*. That includes attitudinal, formal, and other markers that localize a variety of English, e.g., Nigerian in Nigerian English or *Singaporean* in Singaporean English, and so on. The second is the processes of *acculturation of the variety* as reflected in localized sociocultural and

interactional contexts. The third is *institutionalized discourse strategies and speech acts* which are not necessarily shared with the Inner Circle.
The fourth is alteration of—or innovations in—*textual texture* due to use of English in multilingual contexts.

These strands of intercultural identities have one thing in common: They represent the multilingual's creativity. The multilingual's slices of experience are often structured in his/her dominant language and recreated in English. This creativity differs from traditionally accepted norms of English in many ways. First, the drift of the text is toward another canon. This point has been repeatedly illustrated by the texts of Raja Rao, R. K. Narayan, Chinua Achebe, and others. In Raja Rao's later work we see essentially the Vedantic tradition and the Sanskritization of the style. It is consistent with the ideological and metaphysical context of the Sanskritic tradition in which Rao wrote, for example, *The Serpent and the Rope*.

India's Rao and Nigeria's Achebe are two early writers from the Outer Circle who articulated their positions about their conscious identity-shifts in their use of English. They launched their credos for creativity with sensitivity and great vision—Rao as early as 1938 (see Kachru 1988c). The creativity in such texts has been explained within various frameworks, including those of translation, transfer, transcreation, and relexification (see Kachru 1995 and earlier; Oyeleye 1995; see also Y. Kachru 1987).

The main characteristic of such writing is that of hybridization, both in linguistic innovations and contextualization. It is through this "hybridity" that the text becomes intercultural. In other words, the medium is displaced or recontextualized from its traditional underlying presuppositions—literary, cultural, and ideological.

When Soyinka (1993: 88) refers to the "unaccustomed roles" of English in Africa, he is referring to such a "reincarnation" of the language. This, as he says, has turned the language into "a new medium of communication." In the African context, then, English confronts, in Soyinka's words, "a new organic series of mores, social goals, relationships, universal awareness—all of which go into the creation of a new culture" (1993: 88).

Soyinka's point is put in a larger perspective of a writer and his/her context by Achebe (1992: 34):

> Most African writers write out of an African experience and of commitment to an African destiny. For them that destiny does not include a future European identity for which the present is but an apprenticeship.

But context is only the raw material. One has to recreate it into the text and reshape the medium to reflect it.

This takes me to what I have termed "the bilingual's creativity" (1987). A major source for such creativity is the multilingual context in which English functions as an additional language. Nguðgið (1992: 34; see alsoJussawalla, et al., 1992) illustrates this point in the context of Kenya, where Swahili is the lingua franca and there are "national languages" such as Gikuyu and Luo: "By playing with this situation, you can get another level of meaning through the interaction of all three languages."

On the other hand, Soyinka emphasizes the role experimentation can play in the use of "medium as the weapon." He believes that

> [b]lack people twisted the linguistic blade in the hands of the traditional cultural castrator and carved new concepts into the flesh of white supremacy.

The result, says Soyinka, is "the conversion of the enslaving medium into an insurgent weapon" (1993: 88).

The conversion of the medium into an "insurgent weapon" results in demythologization processes of various types. It takes us into legitimation of the bilinguals' creativity and into the underlying cultural contexts of the "loose canons" of world Englishes. A number of such "loose canons" are well institutionalized: African-American, West African, South African, South Asian, Southeast Asian—to name just five.

These "loose canons" have yet to enter

the portals of what is considered the sacrosanct territory of traditional English departments. There are well-articulated attempts by the custodians of canonicity in English to protect the Western canon: there is a call for "reclaiming our heritage" and a rally to protect the purity of the canon from African, Asian, and Hispanic or African-American intruders. It is here that JALT and its membership can open borders through a variety of initiatives: by "opening," as it were, the curriculum to these intercultural dimensions of English; and by making such an endeavor a part of what in Japan is termed the "internationalization campaign."

## Culture Wars And "Loose Canons"

I have briefly mentioned the unprecedented diffusion of English in terms of its *range* and *depth*: one referring to the intercultural functional range of the language and the other to its societal penetration as varieties within a variety—from acrolect to basilect to local pidgins. However, this intercultural nature of English, the multiculturalism represented in the medium and its message, continue to be marginalized. There are a variety of reasons for this.[3]

One major reason for the continued marginalization of varieties of English is the mythology that has been popularized about English, its acquisition, its messages, and its functions. I have earlier talked about these myths in various contexts earlier. And now, in the context of the JALT convention and its focus, I am specifically thinking of just four myths which are relentlessly maintained and cultivated in the profession, and which, in my view, block the crossing of borders, and supress the multiculturalism of English.

*The interlocutor myth*: That English is primarily learned to communicate with the native speakers of the language (American, British, Australian). The sociolinguistic fact is that most of the interaction in English takes place among and between those who use it as an additional language, for example, Japanese with Singaporeans, Nigerians with Indians, Germans with Taiwanese, Koreans with Chinese, and so on.

*The monoculture myth*: That English is learned to understand American or British culture: That motivation is only partly true. In reality, one major function of English teaching in Asia and Africa is to impart native cultural values and traditions in culturally and linguistically pluralistic societies. English is thus used as a vehicle for integrative functions in a national sense (see, e.g., the statements of Chinua Achebe, Raja Rao, Wole Soyinka, and Gabriel Okara given above).

*The model dependency myth*: That EXOCENTRIC models of American or British varieties of English are actually taught and learnt in the global context. In reality, the ENDOCENTRIC (local) models provide major linguistic input. However, one must recognize that there is serious confusion among the users of English between what is *perceived* to be the norm and actual linguistic behavior.

*The cassandra myth*: That diversification and variation in English across cultures is an indicator of linguistic decay, and that controlling the decay is the job of native speakers as teachers of English literature and language and as ESL professionals and professional organizations who are involved in the spread and promotion of English under various guises. The debate on this question still continues in all the circles of English (see, e.g., Bailey 1990).

These myths keep us from considering the intercultural creativity in English(es) within an appropriate paradigm of pluralism.

There is more to these "culture wars" than the above myths show. There are further strategies being designed to use English as a linguistic export commodity for national, cultural, and economic interests. There are questions being asked about the "ownership" of the language. One specimen of such "culture wars" is found, for example, in Roger Bowers, Assistant Director-General of the British Council. He says that "the promotion of the English language is absolutely central" as one of the "Charter obligations" of the British Council (see Bowers, 1995: 88). And he continues

> we want to maintain the position of the English language as a world

> language so that it can serve on the widest possible stage as the vehicle for our national values and heritage. . . . along with those of other English-speaking nations.

Bowers further observes that:

> Now this begins to sound like linguistic imperialism, and if Braj Kachru were here, he would strongly object (as he has in the past) to putting national before supranational interests and to placing commerce before philosophy.

It is this same tone of "national values and heritage" that we find in the USA, in Australia, and so on. The problem is that in the curriculum of ELT and in teacher training the medium does not receive equal opportunity to represent all these diverse cultural strands in the language.

## Discourse Of Marginality And Paradigm Gap

The interculturalism in English as a societal, literary, and pedagogical concept has generally been perceived as a divisive practice and as an intrusion on the conventions of the canon. It has been seen as a step toward linguistic Balkanization and as a threat to the Western canon. The variationist and multiculturalist approaches have been attacked as "liberation linguistics" and as off-shoots of "liberation theology," and innovations in creativity in Asian and African Englishes have been characterized as "planned, managed, and promulgated by those who support a new tongue for new times" (Bailey 1990: 86).

What we see is that intercultural creativity suffers from an identity crisis. We still do not have appropriate labels for it. The labels we use seem to be like loaded weapons: Terraanglia, Third world literature, Colonial literature, Post-colonial literature, and Commonwealth literature.

## Traditional Canonicity Vs. Interculturalism

What is the major issue, then? It is one of conflict between a traditional concept of canonicity and a new concept of interculturalism. It is also a conflict between the sanctity attributed to some terminological sacred linguistic cows such as "speech community," "native speaker," "norm," and "standard." In the specific case of English and in the conceptualization of world Englishes, these concepts need redefining.

The concept of multi-canons and resultant interculturalism in world Englishes is in conflict with the traditional notion of what constitutes a canon. The first point relates to diversity, a concept that is generally being viewed as an initiator of chaos—linguistic and cultural. This attitude is clearly reflected in earlier research on bilingualism and multilingualism in the USA and is much discussed with reference to the "melting pot" hypothesis. Canada, Belgium, India, and Nigeria are thus viewed as cases of linguistic anarchy.

Up to the 1950s the research of academics in the USA on bilingualism and its limitations have not helped the situation. The same attitude was present in earlier debates on code alteration. This takes me to the second point, that of intense negativism about bilingualism and pluralism, and about societies where such descriptions apply.

A partial list of such negative attitudes includes:

- that pluralistic societies are complex and their descriptions present explanatory complexities;
- that writing grammars is difficult anyway, but writing descriptions of bilinguals' grammars is *extremely* complicated;
- that homogeneity and uniformity should be emphasized in linguistic and cultural descriptions;
- that language "mix" and "switch" are attitudinally unacceptable, and violate linguistic "purism";
- that diversity—social, cultural, linguistic—essentially leads to chaos;
- that bilingual groups are considered marginal and problem generating; and
- that bi/multilingualism contributes to retarding materialistic growth.

## Shifting The Paradigm

What I said above is only part of the story. However, the most complex part is initiating paradigm shift. There are several direct and indirect ways by which such a shift can be initiated. They directly relate to developing awareness and engaging in a fresh conceptualization of the field and in applied research. These two dimensions are not mutually exclusive. The following list includes some aspects which we need to emphasize:

- sociolinguistic profiles within a theoretical conceptualization of world Englishes (see Kachru 1992b [1994b] and Sridhar 1986);
- pragmatics of a variety within a variety (e.g., Nigerian Pidgin, basilects, Bazaar Hindi-Urdu);
- range of functions and domains, and depth in terms of the social penetration of varieties of English, and their implications on choices of appropriate styles, registers, and discourse strategies (Kachru 1988a);
- contrastive discourse and its pragmatics in interactional contexts, specifically related to identity, self, and acculturation;
- multilingual's "mixing" and "switching" within multidimensionality of identities; and
- the implication of research on intelligibility and the importance of the "Smith triad" (see Smith 1992).

## Conclusion

What I have attempted to do here is to raise some provocative and, indeed, challenging questions: These questions relate to those dimensions of English which our professional training does *not* include and which professional organizations do *not* put on their agendas. By such omissions we deprive ourselves—as professionals and as learners of English—of an abundant multicultural resource articulated via one medium, and of the innovations in multilingual's creativity expressed in world Englishes.

Let me engage here in self-plagiarism and repeat what I have said in JALT's *The Language Teacher* of October 1996:

> By marginalizing the global uses of English, we are walling in an important world vision for which world Englishes have become an important resource. What is needed is a pluralistic vision of models, norms, and canons that will use this immense, unparalleled resource with sensitivity and understanding—locally and cross-culturally. I have used here two crucial words: sensitivity and understanding. Sensitivity requires that the self-proclaimed custodians of the canon much recognize the appropriations of what Gates, Jr. (1992) has termed "loose canons," though Gates specifically focuses on the African-American canon. Understanding requires that the profession recognizes the importance of the varieties of English, their creativity and literary traditions, their unique functions, their vibrant, distinct voices, and the relevance of these voices to teaching, to curriculum, and to broader conceptualizations of English studies.

The present challenge of world Englishes can not be met with earlier paradigms of language teaching and methodology and curriculum. We have to redesign the world of English studies—and that applies as much to the Inner Circle as to other Circles of English. The diffusion of English challenges the sacred linguistic and literary cows of the profession: we have to redefine concepts such as "speech community," "native speaker," and "communicative competence" for English in a global context. That indeed is a great challenge to our profession in 1990s.

## Notes

1. This paper incorporates several points discussed in detail in Kachru 1991, 1992a and b, 1994a and b, and 1995. A comprehensive overview of the topic is presented in Kachru ed. 1992b, and a state-of-the-art is discussed in Kachru 1992 [1994b].
2. For an extensive discussion and case studies see *World Englishes in Contact and Convergence*, special issue of *World Englishes*, 1993, 13:2.
3. In several of my recent papers, I have discussed this point with reference to various myths, myth-makers, and the

discourse of marginality that has resulted from these myths (see particularly 1992a and 1994a). One must also question the use of some of the sacred linguistic cows with reference the users of English around the world, for example, the terms speech community, native speaker and so on (see Kachru 1988b).

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## *Section Two*
## Teacher Development

# Mosaics of Teacher Development and Socialization

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## Overview

Taking a broad view of teacher development, the second annual colloquium of the Teacher Education N-SIG considered teacher development and socialization in pre-service, in-service, and distance learning programs. The colloquium was organized interactively, with four concurrent poster sessions followed by small group discussions and moderated plenary feedback. In this paper, the first section looks at the initial process of teachers becoming teachers. Next, teaching institutions themselves are examined both in how they shape teachers and how teachers shape them. Sharing journals as a way to bring a group learning experience to a distance learning program are taken up in the third section. The last section looks at video-taping and risk-logging as tools for effective teacher development.

## Andrew Barfield:
## Growing pains: The first two years of teaching

When do you become a teacher? By the time Japanese undergraduates start their pre-service English teacher training, they will have gone through over eight years of English classes, and developed an important sense of what their possible training needs are. To examine this more closely, I developed a pre-service training needs questionnaire, which was administered to postgraduate (would-be teachers) at Tsukuba University and third-year students at Tokyo University of Foreign Studies (n = 55). For reasons of space, I report here on the main section of the questionnaire only.

### *Method*

Each of the fifty items was rated on a five-point Likert scale by the respondents. Factor analysis was then used to see how the questionnaire items correlated (Kline, 1994, p. 5 ff.). Principal factor analysis produced ten factors with Eigenvalues > 1. Three subsequent varimax rotations were performed (cut-off at > 0.4) to obtain both significant and meaningful correlations between the variables of each factor.

### *Results*

The following five factors were obtained in the final varimax rotation:

Factor 1:

| Item | Factor loading |
|---|---|
| 15. learning how to organise group work | 0.78 |
| 9. learning how to organise pairwork | 0.72 |
| 16. learning how to team-teach | 0.71 |
| 10. learning different theories of language learning | 0.68 |
| 26. learning how to use drama in the classroom | 0.62 |
| 27. learning how to assess each individual learner | 0.51 |
| 13. learning how to use English for giving instructions | 0.48 |
| 17. learning theories of language communication | 0.45 |
| 23. learning how to teach listening skills | 0.48 |
| 30. learning about different learning styles and strategies | 0.41 |

Factor 2:

| Item | Factor loading |
|---|---|
| 48. learning how to teach reading aloud | 0.71 |
| 1. learning how to speak clearly and loudly to a class | 0.71 |
| 20. learning how to write on a blackboard | 0.66 |
| 22. learning how to deal with the pressures of teaching | 0.64 |
| 34. learning how to write school reports about students | 0.50 |
| 41. learning how to introduce dialogues | 0.46 |
| 24. learning how to be a homeroom teacher | 0.42 |
| 50. learning how to give presentations about my teaching techniques and ideas | 0.41 |
| 5. learning how to catch a class's interest | 0.41 |

Factor 3:

| Item | Factor loading |
|---|---|
| 23. learning how to teach listening skills | 0.67 |
| 21. learning how to teach writing skills | 0.56 |
| 3. learning how to teach mixed levels in the same class | -0.52 |
| 19. learning how to teach reading skills | 0.52 |
| 49. learning how to teach speaking skills | 0.50 |
| 6. learning how to counsel students about personal problems | -0.50 |
| 32. learning how to teach discussion and debating skills | 0.49 |
| 17. learning theories of language communication | 0.46 |
| 25. learning how to use computers | 0.45 |

Factor 4:

| Item | Factor loading |
|---|---|
| 14. learning how to cover all details in a textbook | -0.61 |
| 44. learning how to analyse my own teaching | 0.61 |
| 11. learning how to do my own classroom research | 0.55 |
| 47. learning how to prepare learners for exams | -0.53 |
| 18. learning how to translate Japanese into English | -0.51 |
| 37. learning how to observe other teachers teaching | 0.45 |

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Factor 5:

| Item | Factor loading |
|---|---|
| 38. learning how to explain grammar rules | 0.71 |
| 2. learning how to correct grammatical errors | 0.61 |
| 29. learning grammar theories | 0.59 |
| 46. learning how to translate English into Japanese | 0.52 |
| 18. learning how to translate Japanese into English | 0.41 |

### *Discussion*

The first factor may be interpreted as learning how to create and manage an interactive classroom, with an emphasis on individualized learning; the second as a major concern with the presentation of oneself as a teacher both within the English lesson, and in terms of initial professional socialization. The third factor reveals a preoccupation with skills-based teaching, language communication theory, and computer competency. The fourth factor centers on learning how to develop collaboratively one's own teaching through analysis, research and observation of colleagues, but this is seen in conflict with a slavish syllabus, exams and translation. The final factor might be interpreted as a concern with learning how to deal with questions of accuracy and correction, and using translation in close association with this.

## Conclusion

The good news is that, in this small-scale exploratory study, pre-service trainees show a clear concern with conducting interactive language lessons and understanding their learners individually; they want to learn presentation skills and practical skills-based teaching, and develop further through collaboration and research. They also have a concern with translation as a means of dealing with accuracy. The painful part is the conflict that these teacher development concerns are perceived to have with a broader context of mixed levels (large classes?), a slavish syllabus, counseling students (ijime?), among others. The question is whether pre-service training (and later in-service) courses take enough account of this or not.

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## Paul A. Beaufait: Institutions as bases for teacher development

The institutional environment in which teaching and learning take place frames and focuses input for teacher development. It sustains uptake; it reflects output. Dynamic, dramatic, or dead, institutional settings can validate, defeat or redirect individual development processes. Whether teacher development involves student-centered activities or curricular developments, self-development or peer-mentoring; institutions are at once stages for our teaching practices and venues for reflection and collaboration. For example, explicitly within a school-based framework for workshops, Moon (1994) cites minimal conditions for "professional talk" to encourage teacher development:

1. A plan and purpose;
2. Linkage to recent practice (after Schön, 1987, p. 101);
3. A variety of perspectives coming from the different roles and experiences of participants;
4. Feedback on participants' views; and,
5. Reflection on the whole development process (Moon, 1994, p. 53).

Hayes (1995) confirms the school base, arguing for classroom-centered teacher development activities:

> Teachers need to be able to see the impact of the proposed innovation on daily classroom procedures if it is to have any validity. Holding developmental activities in schools also raises their status . . . . This indicates respect for the school environment rather than downgrading its importance (pp. 256-267).

During colloquium interaction, I explored audience perspectives of institutions as bases for teacher development, by eliciting views which the audience members 'posted' on stickers to four different modules of the Institutions as Bases: Post & Peek© workspace before they 'peeked' at ideas from a different teachers' group[1]. The plan and purpose of the workspace were to facilitate sharing and reflection amongst the audience, the preceding group of teachers, and the presenter. What follows is a qualitative - quantitative synopsis, providing feedback on audience views. The synopsis is followed by brief reflection on the Post & Peek© process itself.

*Synopsis*

Rough paragraph counts may best indicate the number of different ideas elicited. In just a few minutes, audience members contributed 1.76 times more paragraphs to the two negative, or down-side *Disadvantages and Barriers* modules (n¶s = 67) than they did to the two positive-outlooking *Advantages and Bridges* modules (p¶s = 38; see Examples, below). More members, 1.44 times more (n = 26), contributed to the negative modules, than did to the positive ones (p = 18), writing 1.37 times more words (nwords:pwords = 419:305). In sum, there were more negative contributions.

Can such predominantly negative contributions indicate predominantly negative thinking about teacher development in the institutions where teachers teach? I hope not. Not wishing to focus on the negative here, I will highlight audience members' views with examples selected from the positive modules before reflecting on the elicitation and feedback process.

*Examples*

Among advantages, these were mentioned:

- Company-based contributor (3 ¶s, sic)
  1. *Develop cohesiveness in the program - personnel, and group.*
  2. *Professional development of staff.*
  3. *Builds morale.*
- Canadian university language institute contributor (1 ¶, sic)

The school is a learning community, so all participants — teachers, students, administrators and staff — engage in conversation about education.

I believe the preceding comment presents a spitting image of Moon's "professional talk" (p. 53), and represents an ideal to strive for. As for bridges, these were given:

- University-based contributor (1 ¶, sic)

If the university cares enough to provide both time and training the support in itself is a bridge.

- No institution listed by contributor (2 ¶s, sic)

Peer support.
Positive student feedback to new ideas.

- No institution listed by contributor (2 ¶s, sic)

Inspires trust and involvement in the organization.
Obviously helps see "teaching as a profession" rather than a job.

These comments highlight the value of school-based teacher development, and underscore Okada's conclusion, "There is a need to establish a practical support system that can help teachers . . . take part in development-oriented teacher education programs. The lesson is: If teachers can develop, then curriculum development will follow through conclusion" (with Barfield, et al., 1996, p. 16).

*Process*

The Post & Peek© workspace facilitated sharing and reflection among professionals in a collegial if not institutional environment. Peeking at predecessors' views after posting their own enabled circulating audience members to share their ideas and compare them immediately with others', including those from a distinct group of teachers1, while still party to discussion amongst their peers and the presenter.

Though surprised by the negative balance of contributions obtained in session, I feel their diversity will be useful. As the process is cyclical and compounding, I will endeavor to use them as additional background for future interactions involving teachers, who reflect — positively — on development opportunities in the institutions where they teach and learn.

## Sean Conley:
## Using shared journals in distance learning

Distance learning can be a lonely experience. One works alone, reading articles, writing papers, wondering if anyone else has the same problems, the same experiences. The opportunity to learn from others, so central to the principles of humanistic education, is often missing. Journals written by and shared among a group of distance learners can help fill that gap.

During the colloquium I described a five-step process for using shared journals as a way to work with training materials in distance teacher education. Unlike action research journals or dialogue journals, the purpose of this kind of shared journaling among a group of four to six participants is to promote learning from others, to encourage thoughtful consideration of training material in light of the participants' classroom experience, and to connect theories presented in the materials with practice as experienced by participants.

*Stages*

There are five stages to writing a shared journal entry:

**Table 1**
**Writing Shared Journal Entry Stages**

1. Input: Participants read an assigned book or article, view a videotaped demonstration, or listen to an audio-taped lecture.
2. Personalizing: Participants consider what idea or technique in the material speaks to them or strikes them as useful and consider how it might be applied in their teaching.
3. Experimenting: Participants apply what they've chosen - incorporating it into their teaching of a specific class.
4. Writing: Participants write a journal entry that is shared with others in their group, participants write about what it was that struck them, how they incorporated it into their teaching, and what they think and feel about the experience.
5. Sharing: Participants fax or e-mail their journal entry to the others and receive and read what the others have written. Individual responses are written to authors of entries that a participant finds especially interesting or helpful.

In a training program, required readings are often followed by study questions found at the end of each article. Working with materials using shared journals, participants have the freedom to personalize the articles, taking from them what they find valuable, rather than what they are directed to by study questions. In this, there is both the challenge and the chance to make the article meaningful and useful in an immediate way. By trying in their classrooms what participants have found stimulating in the material, they bridge the gap between theory and practice.

*Generating ideas*

Moving from experimenting to writing participants must, as Edge (1992) says, put [their] thoughts into a coherent shape . . . to communicate them to someone else (Edge, 1992, p. 7). It is a process that sometimes causes you to see properly for the first time just exactly how your ideas do fit together. (Edge, op.cit.). Writing thus helps generate ideas and works as a way of setting off the brain's natural ability to create possible answers. The process of writing entries about their thoughts and experiences for an audience of their peers taps into both of these processes: participants must clarify their ideas in order to communicate them to others, and in the process they make discoveries about their own understanding of the material and generate new ideas, questions and answers to problems.

In the final sharing stage participants read how others have understood and made use of the material. Here, a participant might be challenged by the discovery that others understood and applied the material differently, leading to reconsideration of the material or a reevaluation of their own understanding - the rough equivalent of class discussion. On the practical level, this is also a chance to see what others have done in their classrooms and gather ideas to try on their own.

### *Conclusion*

Feedback from participants has indicated that shared journals help them feel less alone, that they find comfort in the knowledge that others share similar problems and frustrations, and that descriptions of others' classroom activities are helpful and interesting. Though some find personalizing the material challenging, many indicate that they feel it gives them a sense of freedom. Correspondence between participants shows that they are often surprised and challenged by different ways of understanding and applying the training materials. Nearly all participants have indicated a preference for shared journaling over working independently.

## Tim Murphey:

## Increasing teacher awareness through class videoing and risk-logging

Teachers in graduate school and a continuing education course were asked to video-tape their classes, and then to watch their video and analyze it themselves with the help of a feedback form early in the semester. Next, they were asked to video tape themselves later in the semester and again analyze the video and to write a short report comparing the two videos. They knew they were going to do these two videos at the outset of the course.

### *Taking risks*

At the same time, they were asked to take small risks in their classrooms each week. There were asked to do something different from what they normally did. These could be things that were modeled each week by the teacher educator conducting the course, or they could be something else. They could be small things like simply playing background music the first few minutes or during an exercise. The idea was that teachers were not going to change drastically; that would be too frightening and probably unecological. However, they could enjoy implementing small changes within what was possible, within their zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1934/1962).

### *Sharing risks for feedback*

Each week teachers came to the courses and shared their Risk Logs with the other participants in pairs and then passed them in to the trainer for comments. They were returned the following week. The class videoing form was turned in to the trainer early in the semester and the second later with a report comparing the two. A few students began voluntarily exchanging videos with each other to get feedback and a few chose to give theirs to the instructor to get feedback. These were seen as very positive acts. However, in order not to make others feel that they needed to do this, these were not encouraged, but rather acknowledged as an option. Both methods seem to have led to more independent teacher development for the participants — which they will hopefully continue doing.

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# Questions About Teaching? Answers From Teachers!

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## Introduction

The presenters, who together have more than sixty years teaching experience, remember how it was when they were starting out. They remember that they wished there had been experienced teachers around to answer the questions that arose in the classroom and workplace. Now that they are experienced teachers, the presenters felt that this roundtable would be a useful forum in which those new to teaching and/or Japan could take advantage of their long and varied experience.

This proved to be the case. The discussion was lively, and could easily have continued beyond the allotted time. Clearly teachers at all levels are eager to interact with those who have had different experiences, to ask questions which have arisen in the course of their work, and to share experiences they may have had that could be helpful to teachers in other situations.

The five presenters opened the roundtable with a discussion of five myths of language teaching in Japan. David Cozy (DC) debunked the notion that, though Japanese have trouble speaking English, they are excellent writers and readers. Eugenia (Genie) Medrano-Endo (GME) questioned the idea that teachers always know best. Atsuko Kashiwagi (AK) wondered whether it's really a sin for students and teachers to use the students' mother tongue in the classroom. Chris Poel (CP) argued that sticking students in groups may not be enough to create a communicative classroom, while Spencer Weatherly (SW) suggested that Japanese students, at least at the university level, may not be the "super students" we've been led to expect.

When the presenters had finished with their challenges to the conventional wisdom, the roundtable got underway.

## The Roundtable

*Question: Do learning styles exist in Japan? Isn't Japan a homogeneous society?*

GME: People feel that Japanese students are mostly passive learners and that this is their learning style. Actually, it is not so much that Japanese learners prefer to learn this way than it is that they have been conditioned to learn in such a way. At a young age, students are discouraged from "deviating from the norm" and from voicing their preferences in the classroom, mainly because teachers are afraid (1) that they will lose control in their classes, and (2) that this will go on until adulthood and cause problems for the "homogeneous" society.

*Question: Why do so many teachers refuse to acknowledge that there are different learning styles in the classroom?*

DC: Perhaps the main reason is that, among Japanese (and foreigners too) the notion that Japanese are individuals before they are members of a group called "We Japanese" is not universally accepted.

CP: Right, the notion that Japanese are different from each other is certainly not accepted in the classroom, although the idea that all learners learn the same is an absolute myth, in Japan or anywhere else. And while some (or most) teachers seem to have a hard time understanding this, students don't. Whenever I have my students write about their educational experiences, they always mention learner differences, though of course they don't use that term.

SW: Moreover, the idea that all students learn the same way can be extremely destructive. Students can easily come to feel that they are stupid if some system works for their classmates but not for them. It may well be, though, that employing a different way of learning will allow those students to do great.

GME: Actually, there are a lot of issues involved here. First, teachers generally have their own ideas of what it means to learn a language. A lot of this is based on their own experiences — we tend to teach as we were taught — and also, to a certain extent, on their personality types. Thus, you can see how teachers will vary in the way they teach a particular learning item. They will normally teach in what they think is the best way to learn, but that won't necessarily correspond with what is best for the students.

The other issue here is work. Teachers who are used to teaching in a certain style will be reluctant to change their classroom rhythm. It will mean that much more planning and extra work at first. They will soon discover, though, that this extra work will actually mean less work in the long run.

*Question: If we accept that students do have different learning styles, doesn't that present an enormous problem for teachers? I mean if we're teaching classes of twenty or thirty or forty different students with as many different learning styles, how can we possibly plan lessons that are appropriate for all of them?*

CP: First of all we need to be eclectic, to vary our activities. Give the students some groupwork, some pairwork, and some time to work alone. Give them some drills and some silent "contemplation" time. Let them play games; make them write. There are literally hundreds of different things that a teacher can do in class, and if you do hundreds of different things, you're bound to find something, lots of things, that fit every student's learning style.

GME: At the beginning of the term, inform them that each person learns in a different way and that by being aware of one's own learning style and going with it, one is able to learn more effectively. You can also tell them that circumstances in the classroom do not always make this possible, but that

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when they're by themselves, they can and should try to follow their learning style. This will give them the idea, too, that their learning is basically their own responsibility.

Now, back to the classroom. Big classes mean many students and many learning styles. But, don't think that you have to cater to 30 or 40 different learning styles. You will find that you can classify your students into five or six learner types that will be manageable. As you categorize students accordingly, you — and your students — will find that there is an overlap of learning styles among students. A "concrete learner," for example, may have a lot in common with a "communicative learner." Likewise, an "analytical learner" may not be exclusively analytical, but will welcome communicative activities as well. The point is that the teacher should plan activities that will be more readily accepted by the type of learners in his/her class.

***Comment:** Actually, learning styles cannot be clearly categorized into four different learner types. Usually, there is no clear-cut line and most learners are a mixture of different types.*
GME: Yes, that's true. The Willing study[1] was an example that talked about four different learner types of that particular study. But the whole point of the myth is not so much to state that there are X number of learner types as to encourage teachers to think about learner styles or preferences when they plan for activities in the classroom. In other words, get to know your students, become aware of their different learner styles — and try to go with the flow.

***Question:** You mentioned using drills. I'm a teacher-trainer working for a large company which uses in-house materials that consist mostly of drills. Though I am obliged to train teachers in how to use these materials, I do not think drills are adequate. I want to train my teachers in more communicative techniques, but I can't jettison the drills altogether. What should I do?*
DC: The first thing to remember is that drills are not all bad. Although few now believe that they are the most effective way to teach or learn languages, that is not the same as saying they are entirely ineffective. Many of us present at this roundtable have been taught languages by teachers employing the audio-lingual method (and there is no method more dependent on drills), and guess what: we did learn! You don't need to feel, therefore, that in employing drills you are doing nothing for your students.
CP: That's true, but I suspect that students who manage to learn using drill-based methods do so by contextualizing and personalizing the language that is being drilled into them. Some students are unable to do this on their own, though, and that's where the teacher needs to step in and use drills in creative ways. Have one student, for example, be the teacher for the group. She gives the model sentence, has the group members repeat, and then gives the substitutions and the others in the group take turns. At the very least, this will dramatically increase the amount of time each student spends talking. If you have students working in groups of four, each member is talking one-fourth of the time, instead of only once or twice during the entire lesson.
DC: Yes, and since Japanese students are often familiar with drills, this is a good way of letting them do an activity with which they are comfortable, while at the same time introducing something with which they may be less familiar: groupwork.
CP: Remember, too, that the drills are not an end point in themselves. They should be seen as a stepping stone.
DC: Right. So even though you and the teachers you are training must employ drills, you don't have to use them as the whole class. Used as a part of each class they can be a way to introduce new structures and vocabulary which prepare students for more communicative activities to follow. I'm afraid you may find, however, that the teachers you train may resist employing more communicative methods because doing so will require more work on their parts than simply running through drills.
CP: One way to deal with that resistance is to encourage teachers to collaborate, thus spreading the additional work around — a sort of groupwork for teachers.

***Question:** How do you feel about allowing students to use their mother tongue in the classroom? Isn't there a danger that a teacher can become lazy and start explaining everything in the students' L1?*

AK: It is essential that students be given the chance to struggle in the target language. So much learning occurs through negotiation of meaning. Being too quick to give explanations in the students' L1 robs students of opportunities to learn. On the other hand, if you are too insistent on always using the target language, you not only waste a lot of precious class time, but also deprive students of the rich cognitive resources which they have developed in their mother tongue.

I find the best thing to do is, on the first day of class, to ask the students what they want to do. Given the choice, most students prefer to use English in the English classroom. They want me to use English all the time, and only ask that they be allowed to use their L1 when they are absolutely stuck. I find that if I let the students establish their own rules, they are more likely to stick to them. It is important, though, that whatever rules the class agrees on are clearly laid out at the beginning.

GME: Ako is right when she says that given a choice, most students will prefer to use English in the classroom. There's nothing like being cool when one can speak another language fluently. The thing is, it's a long way before students can acquire that proficiency, and therefore, students tend to revert to their mother tongue. But speaking Japanese is itself a golden opportunity for the teacher to catch and rephrase in English. The teacher can then say, "This is how you say it in English. Now that you know, you can use it whenever you need it." I find that students will generally use the new phrase happily, especially when they need to use it often. But in order to reduce this kind of monitoring, it's also good to teach certain classroom vocabulary at the beginning of the semester which will help them slide into the English mode more easily. Don't forget that you can also prep the students with vocabulary needed for the intended discussion.

***Comment:** I generally agree, but I think, in some cases, if you don't spoon-feed the students, they starve.*

AK: The question of how much L1 to allow in the classroom depends on many factors. You have to take into account, for example, the students' level, motivation, reasons for studying, age, and the size of the class. Some students will benefit from and appreciate the use of Japanese when grammatical structures or certain vocabulary items are explained. Other students will love the challenge of having everything explained in English. I think the important thing is not to let dogmas about L1 vs. L2 use limit the ways you respond to your students' needs.

SW: You need to keep in mind what the purpose of the lesson is. If giving and understanding instructions in English is the focus of your lesson, then do it in English. If the instructions are just a means of setting up another more important activity, the students' L1 may be appropriate. Using the L1 will allow you to get to the main focus of your lesson more quickly.

CP: Right, and for those of us who haven't yet mastered Japanese, using our less than perfect Japanese in our classrooms shows students that making mistakes in a second language is not the end of the world.

***Question:** I'm Japanese. Because the students know that, I find that it can be really difficult to get them to talk to me in English. How can I deal with a student who refuses to speak English to me?*

AK: I'm also Japanese, and I entirely understand what you are saying. Actually, I once had a student tell me that when she talked to me in English, she felt intimidated. When she talked to me, she felt that I was just evaluating her English rather than really listening to what she was saying. I had to admit she had a point. When the teacher and student are both Japanese, using English with each other can feel totally contrived; the sense of real communication can be lost.

I don't think, though, that it is impossible for Japanese teachers to create a classroom atmosphere in which students can enjoy communicating in English. Some students even enjoy speaking English with Japanese teachers. For these students it's like a game. It's very important for the teacher, however, to set the tone of the class from the first day, and again, I'd say the best way to do this is by having a discussion with your students about what they want.

***Question:** I teach a small group class in which*

***there is a doctor who is quite eminent and also older than the other members of the group. He intimidates the other members of the group, and the truth is, he intimidates me, too. What should I do to ensure equal speaking time for all members of the group?***

DC: On a fundamental level, remember that you are the teacher, and that teachers in this society are vested with a certain amount of power and respect. You have the authority to tell the doctor — with all due courtesy and respect — to shut up.

CP: On a more practical level you can use groupwork techniques to manage the amount each student speaks. For example, give each student a token of some sort. In order to talk, the student must "spend" their token. Having spent his or her token, the student cannot speak again until all the other students have spent their tokens. Once that happens, all students retrieve their tokens from the center of the table, and the discussion proceeds. This technique not only assures that loudmouths don't dominate, but also provides incentives for quiet students to speak. Because the aggressive students are impatient for their turn to come around again, they encourage more quiet students to take their turns.

GME: My particular remedy is to have a timer that will beep when it's time to stop. But you know, what can be a problem here can actually be turned into something positive. This doctor, you have to admit, is an exceptional student — he's talking! Here we are practically on our knees asking students to say something in English, and when one finally does, we want him to shut up. Usually, dominant speakers can be great leaders. You can make such dominant members of the group work for you by asking them to be leaders, whose main task is to elicit information from each and every member of his group, and then ask him to summarize what went on in the discussion. He will love the esteem that comes with being a leader — and won't mind the responsibilities connected with it. You can then sit in your chair and relax instead of playing police.

***Question:** **When doing pairwork, should I be concerned about pairs of unequal ability?***

DC: Well, unequal pairs can be a positive thing. In unequal pairs, the more able student can teach his or her partner, and in so doing help each of them to learn. In fact, though it won't always be the more able student doing the teaching. All learners know something that other learners don't, so all will have an opportunity to be the teacher.

Having said that, one probably doesn't want to have students in unequal pairs all the time. It is also nice for two advanced students to get together and fly, as well as for less advanced students to work with someone who is comfortable with a slower pace. For this reason, one should change pairs often, even several times in one class.

CP: You need to be careful, though, about how pairs or groups are formed. If students are allowed to form their own groups, they'll work with their friends, and in doing so, they may not stay focused on the task. Also, students who are less popular, or perceived as "bad," may be left out.

With regard to groups, in the field of cooperative learning, mixed groups are considered ideal. Having one high proficiency student, one low proficiency student, and two that fall somewhere in the middle is recommended. You do have to take care, though, to structure your tasks in such a way that each group member will have to participate. You can't give the low proficiency learners the chance to tune out— or the higher students the chance to ignore their groupmates.

***Question:** **I have a real problem with students coming in late. What should I do?***

SW: The teacher must make it clear from the start what is expected of students. The prevalent notion, at least at college and university level, is that students are not expected to show up for class on time, and you cannot really blame students for believing that your class too will be run on these premises. You have to make it clear, therefore, that it is not going to be allowed.

If the teacher makes it clear that being late is not acceptable, will not be tolerated, and will affect their grade in the course, then students will not be late. One way of doing this is "three strikes and you're out." If the student is not in his or her seat by the time roll is called then that student is absent. If a student is absent three times, he or she fails the class — period! Students will tend not to take such systems seriously at first, so the teacher has to keep reminding them that they'd better learn to. It's usually enough to comment as you are taking roll, "Only one more for Taro and he's out." Students quickly come to understand that you are not kidding.

Of course there are other systems for getting students to show up on time. One can, for example, give students points for attendance. If a student has less than X amount of attendance then that is ten percent off his or her total score for the year. If a student has less than X amount of attendance, then that is minus twenty percent, and so on.

CP: What I do is simple. If they are more than fifteen minutes late for a class they are considered absent. Four absences in a semester — or seven for a full-year course — and they fail. The details, however, of the system are not that important. The important thing is to have a clear policy, explain that policy from the beginning, and to stick to it.

Another way I encourage students to show up on time is to spend the first fifteen minutes of each class on student speeches. Each week several students have to give speeches which count for about ten percent of their grades. If they are late, they may miss their chance to speak, and this could, I make clear to them, affect their final grade dramatically.

*Question: Is getting a Master's degree worth it?*

DC: If you don't plan to stay in teaching, there is no reason to spend the time, energy and money it takes to get a Master's degree. If, on the other hand, you are a career teacher then a Master's degree is indispensable.

CP: I strongly agree. Getting a Master's was the most important move in my teaching career. Not only did it allow me to move from conversation school and vocational school teaching to the university level, but it improved my teaching skills dramatically. Yes, it's definitely worth it.

DC: Yes, and on a more mundane level, if one wants to teach at a college or university in Japan, and increasingly at other types of institutions as well, a Master's degree is a basic requirement. Also, to get in the door at most Japanese colleges and universities you have to have contacts, and particularly if you do your Master's in Japan, you will make those sorts of contacts in your program.

GME: If nothing else there is always the confidence that one gains when one has completed a graduate degree — confidence as a teacher, confidence as a lesson planner, confidence that what you are doing will benefit the students' language learning.

*Question: Yes, but isn't what one learns in a Master's program too theoretical to be of use to working teachers?*

SW: It's true they're not going to teach you things like how to erase the blackboard. You're still going to have to think for yourself and come up with lesson plans on your own. You will, though, acquire the tools which will enable you to do this in a more principled fashion. Actually, a lot of people who are initially hostile to what they call "theory" learn to see the point of it as they proceed toward their degree.

GME: Really, in a Master's program it's not all theory. Some assignments will actually require you to develop communicative activities that will be relevant to your particular teaching situation, which will help you make informed decisions of what will work best for you in the classroom. You will actually be more in control of your teaching, you'll feel better about it, and you will end up doing a better job!

DC: And, with that thought we'll bring this roundtable to a close. We'd like to thank the audience for participating and for their thoughtful and insightful questions. If there is anyone who didn't get a chance to ask their question or who would like to further question any of the panel members, we'd be more than happy to talk to you outside as soon as we finish here. Thank you again for coming, and enjoy the rest of the conference.

**Footnote**

1 Willing, K. (1987). *Learning styles and adult migrant education*. Adelaide: National Curriculum Resource Centre.

# What Makes a Good Language Lesson? (Part 2)

**Stephen M. Ryan**
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This poster reported on the findings of an on-going research project which examines the concept which teachers and students in Japan have of "a good language lesson."

The first part of the project asked 572 students at a wide variety of schools to write about the best English lesson they had ever had. A content-analysis of their responses was presented at JALT95 (Ryan, 1996).

This second part of the project, which used the same methodology, asked a similar question to language teachers working in Japan. It attempts to identify similarities and differences in the views of students and their teachers on this subject.

This is done not in the belief that good teaching consists in giving students exactly what they want, nor in bending them entirely to the will of the teacher but from a conviction that teaching should be based on an appreciation of as many of the factors that come together in the classroom as possible, especially those on which students and teachers differ.

## Previous studies

There has been a flurry of articles examining the views on various aspects of language education held by college students in Japan (Hadley & Hadley, 1996; Redfield, 1995; Shimizu, 1995; Durham and Ryan, 1992), but far fewer dealing with those of their teachers. Presumably this is at least in part due to the difficulties of obtaining responses from a meaningfully large sample of teachers.

In Hong Kong, Richards, Tung and Ng have reported on the beliefs and attitudes of teachers in in-service training but focussed mainly on the ideological levels of philosophy, method and approach (1992).

The only (fairly) large scale study of teachers conducted recently in Japan appears to be Sasaki's (1996) survey of 81 native-speaking English teachers. Sasaki focussed on the teachers' attitudes to the classroom behaviour of their Japanese students and reports a mismatch between teachers' expectations and students' behaviour.

## The survey

A questionnaire was drawn up asking teachers to respond in writing to the following question:

- What are the elements of your "ideal lesson," the kind of lesson you aim to teach to your students (although you may not always succeed)?
- While the lesson should be ideal, the students you imagine teaching it to should be your own.
- Please be as detailed as possible.

Respondents were also asked to provide some basic demographic information.

The research question was left deliberately open (some might say vague) in order to avoid pre-judging the answers by suggesting that they might involve certain categories. The students surveyed in the first part of the project had been asked a slightly more concrete question ("Think of the best English lesson you have ever had. What was good about it? What made it different from other English lessons?") which was thought to be more appropriate to their level of maturity. The more abstract question was used with the teachers on the assumption that, with a wider experience of different teaching situations than the students, they would be more able to extrapolate the elements of an ideal lesson.

Questionnaires were distributed to teachers in Japan by the following means: given to those showing an interest in the poster presentation of student data at JALT95; sent to members of JALT's CUE N-SIG who had agreed to participate in questionnaire research; handed or e-mailed to friends and colleagues and posted on the JALT CALL electronic-mail list for answers off-list.

The responses were analysed to extract the elements of a good lesson which they mentioned. If, for example, a response said: "A good lesson would have motivated students paying attention to the teacher," it was read as one mention of motivated students and one mention of attentiveness.

As more responses were analysed, the list of elements grew longer and it was possible to group some of them under headings such as "Goals," "Atmosphere" and "Materials." This grouping was done in order to make a long list of elements digestible for consumers of the results and is not intended to suggest that the teachers themselves would have grouped their responses in this way.

No attempt was made to force the responses into similar categories to those which emerged from the data collected from students in the previous study.

## Sample

Responses were received from 54 teachers. Since only one of them was a native speaker of Japanese, it was decided to focus the study on the 53 who were native speakers of English teaching their own language. Thus the survey dealt exclusively with the views of foreign teachers. This was not the intention at the outset but a result of the lack of responses from Japanese teachers.

They were teaching in the following kinds of schools:

| | |
|---|---|
| University: | 24 |
| Junior College: | 10 |
| University and Junior College: | 8 |
| Various (including Company, language school, *senmongakko*): | 9 |
| No answer: | 2 |

## Results

With such a small sample, it was decided to treat all the teachers as one group rather than looking for differences between the responses of, say, university teachers and *senmongakko* teachers.

The elements of a good lesson mentioned by more than one teacher are tabulated below with figures showing how many respondents mentioned each element.

**Elements of a good lesson mentioned by more than one teacher**

| Element | # of teachers |
|---|---|
| Goals | |
| students learn something new | 5 |
| student-autonomy | 3 |
| achieve goals | 2 |
| sense of accomplishment for students | 2 |
| meet needs of all students | 2 |
| students leave happy | 2 |
| students leave feeling they learnt sthg. | 2 |
| improve students' self-esteem | 2 |
| improvement in students' language use | 2 |
| students to learn one/two items per lesson | 2 |
| Approach | |
| student-centred | 5 |
| Lesson-planning considerations | |
| classes fit together in a series | 5 |
| variety of activities | 4 |
| movement | 4 |

| | |
|---|---|
| time for students to reflect | 3 |
| pace fast enough to maintain interest | 2 |
| small class | 2 |
| well-planned | 2 |
| Lesson components | |
| warm-up | 6 |
| homework | 5 |
| review | 4 |
| summary | 2 |
| preview next lesson | 2 |
| What is taught | |
| useable/useful English | 5 |
| Materials/Content | |
| interesting to students | 8 |
| textbook | 7 |
| video | 5 |
| personal topics | 4 |
| appropriate to students' level | 3 |
| interesting to teacher | 3 |
| selected by students | 2 |
| social topics | 2 |
| tapes | 2 |
| Class activities | |
| pairwork | 16 |
| group work | 10 |
| role-play | 6 |
| songs | 3 |
| real-life activities | 3 |
| information gap task | 3 |
| students make dialogues | 3 |
| drills | 3 |
| drama activities | 2 |
| timed activities | 2 |
| quizzes | 2 |
| student presentations | 2 |
| discussion | 2 |
| Teacher activities | |
| does not correct too much | 4 |
| helps/corrects students | 4 |
| acts as a facilitator | 3 |
| monitors students | 3 |
| talks very little | 2 |
| prepares well | 2 |
| Student Activities | |
| interact in English | 15 |
| speak English | 7 |
| prepare well | 4 |
| speak out/ask questions | 4 |
| monitor/correct themselves | 4 |
| know purpose of lesson | 3 |
| know and use classroom language | 2 |
| answer questions | 2 |
| listen a lot | 2 |
| Student attitude | |
| well motivated | 3 |

| | |
|---|---|
| interested in lesson | 2 |
| interested in learning | 2 |
| interested in teacher | 2 |
| Atmosphere | |
| students fully engaged in lesson | 17 |
| fun | 8 |
| interesting for students | 5 |
| challenge | 5 |
| good humour | 4 |
| excitement | 4 |
| "Aha!" moments | 3 |
| lively | 3 |
| respect for all | 3 |
| good teacher-student rapport | 3 |
| sense of wonder/magic | 3 |
| students feel free to speak | 2 |
| students do not want to leave | 2 |

To a large extent the table speaks for itself: the teachers surveyed would like to see their students fully engaged and interacting in English, mainly in pairwork and groupwork activities, using materials that interest the students, in a fun atmosphere. There is less consensus in other categories but a general recognition that an ideal lesson would have a goal (or goals) and that teachers should consider the ordering of activities in the lesson plan.

Although student-centredness is espoused explicitly by only 5 of the respondents, it is implicit in many of the other elements mentioned. There is concern that students should be interested both in the materials used and in the lessons themselves. The most popular of the classroom activities (pair-work, group-work, role-play) require a lot of student involvement. The long list of student activities contrasts with the limited number of teacher activities, many of which are negative (do not correct too much, do not talk too much). Indeed, few of the activities suggested for the teacher fit a traditional model of "teacherliness": the teacher is seen here as a planner, a facilitator and a monitor of student-centred activities.

This, of course, puts the onus on students to provide the centre around which the ideal lesson revolves. It is not surprising, then, that the single most common response was that students should be fully engaged in the lesson. Since the common perception is that Japanese education tends to be teacher-centred to a fault, it would be interesting to know how far this desire for student-centredness is a reaction by the teachers to the situation in which they find themselves.

### Comparison with student preferences

The analysis of student responses to the previous survey concluded: "students like to learn practical English in small conversation classes taught by foreign teachers using videos in a fun atmosphere with games and explanations that are easy to understand" (Ryan, 1996, p. 118). While this is not incompatible with the student-centred approach favoured by the teachers, it does suggest a difference in priorities.

The following table shows elements mentioned by both teachers and students. For ease of comparison, the number of respondents mentioning an element is expressed as a percentage of the total number of respondents to each survey.

| Element | Teachers (%) | Students (%) |
|---|---|---|
|  | n =53 | n = 572 |
| fun | 15.1 | 15.6 |
| video | 9.4 | 9.9 |
| small class | 3.8 | 4.2 |
| useable/useful English | 9.4 | 7.5 |
| tapes | 3.8 | 1.4 |
| quizzes | 3.8 | 1.6 |
| songs | 5.7 | 3.1 |
| discussion | 3.8 | 1.2 |
| sense of accomplishment for students | 3.8 | 1.0 |
| drama activities | 3.8 | 0.3 |
| students prepare well | 7.5 | 0.3 |
| interesting | 9.4 | 1.0 |
| students speak English | 13.2 | 2.3 |
| role-play | 11.3 | 0.3 |
| group work | 18.9 | 1.2 |
| pairwork | 30.2 | 1.0 |

The strongest areas of agreement seem to be that lessons should be fun, involve small classes and teach useful English and on specific classroom activities or materials. However, the elements on which there is agreement account for only 8.6% of all the elements mentioned by the two groups of respondents. Whole categories of elements mentioned by one group are ignored by the other: students say nothing about lesson goals, approach or (less surprisingly) lesson-planning; teachers do not mention the manner in which instructions should be given to students (a topic on which 10.0% of the students express an opinion).

While this is suggestive of huge differences in the priorities of teachers and students, it is important not to read too much into it at this stage of the research project. Some of the differences are expected: whilst the personality of the teacher is an important variable for the student, it is a constant for a teacher asked to write about a lesson taught by him or herself. Some are matters of semantics: a teacher writing about "helping and correcting students" and a student saying the teacher should correct students' pronunciation probably have very similar ideas on this point but, since they are not exactly the same, it is not possible to conflate them for analysis.

Most importantly, the research methodology employed so far will not allow us to understand if an element is not mentioned because it is not thought to be important or because it is so obvious that it, literally, "goes without saying."

Obviously, a further round of research is needed to overcome these problems. In the third stage, students and teachers will be asked to react to the same list of elements of a good lesson drawn from the first two parts of this project. It is hoped that firmer conclusions can be drawn from the third, comparative, stage of the research.

## Conclusion

This second part of the research project has looked at the elements foreign teachers in Japan consider to be part of an ideal language lesson. Although only a small number of teachers responded to the survey, it is possible to discern a predilection for student-centred approaches. How far this is compatible with the preferences of Japanese students is a question which will be explored further in the third stage of this project.

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# Understanding Instructions Survey: Less Anxiety, More Interaction

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## Introduction

Action research is one way to try to solve classroom problems (LoCastro, 1994, p. 5). When I began an action research project in September 1995, I had a problem. Students in my novice-level freshman conversation class and I felt anxiety during instructions. There was one activity in particular which helped reduce anxiety during this project (Kindt, in press). It was a survey that introduced students to possible ways to understand instructions. In this paper, I would like to present a revision of this survey and show how action research can result in practical applications.

## The "What Do You Do to Understand?" Survey

A list of possible techniques (or ways) students might use to help understand instructions became the basis of the fifteen-item survey. When I introduce the survey to a class, I first familiarize students with the words below:

| | |
|---|---|
| explanation | 説明 |
| explain | 説明する |
| watch | 見る |
| examples | 例 |
| gesture | ジェスチャ |
| handout | プリント |
| demonstrations | 手本 |
| carefully | 注 [illegible]く |
| writing | 書くこと |
| activity | 課題 |
| pictures | 絵、図 |
| partner | ペア |
| drawings | 絵、図 |
| dictionary | 辞書 |
| real | 本物 |
| wait | 待っている |

1 I ____________ listen to the teacher's explanation.

2 I ____________ watch the teacher's gesture, body language or demonstrations.

3 I ____________ read the teacher's writing, pictures or drawings on the board.

4 I ____________ look at any real things the teacher shows us.

5 I ____________ ask the teacher to explain again.

6 I ____________ ask the teacher for examples.

7 I ____________ read the handout or textbook carefully.

8 I ____________ watch what other students are doing or their demonstration.

9 I ____________ ask my classmates to explain in English.

10 I ____________ ask my classmates for examples in English.

11 I ____________ just try the activity by myself, with a partner or in a group

Then I explain how to complete the survey by writing either "never," "sometimes," "often," "usually," or "always" on the blanks. A colleague suggested doing the survey as interviews to make it a communicative activity. Whatever the case, students should complete the survey thinking especially of their English classes with foreign teachers:

12 I ____________ look in a dictionary.
13 I ____________ ask the teacher to explain in Japanese.
14 I ____________ ask my classmates to explain in Japanese.
15 I ____________ do nothing and wait for the teacher to come and help me.

## Survey on ways of understanding teachers' instructions

After collecting the surveys, I calculated a relative frequency of response for each item. I assigned values (never=0, sometimes=1, often=2, usually=3 and always=4) and calculated the average.

I will comment on two classes I taught this year (1996), a novice Freshman Class and a class of International Communication students who studied abroad for a year. I will also include the results of all 117 students from ten different classes participating in the survey.

The results varied greatly from class to class but showed a tendency towards three ranges—high (2.6+), mid (2.5-1.5), and low (below1.4). For example, in Figure1 items 1, 3, 2, and 7 are high, items 14, 12, 4, 8, 11, 5 and 13 are mid, and 6, 15, 9, and 10 are low range items. The only surprise in the high range is item 7, "I ____________ read the handout or textbook carefully," which is typically mid-range. Scoring 3.1 might show that the Freshman Class gets more security out of written instructions. In the mid-range, item 5 at 1.8, "I ____________ ask the teacher to explain again," may shows students' hesitation to take active roles in the class. This same item scored higher with the International students (2.1) and lower with the general student body (1.5).

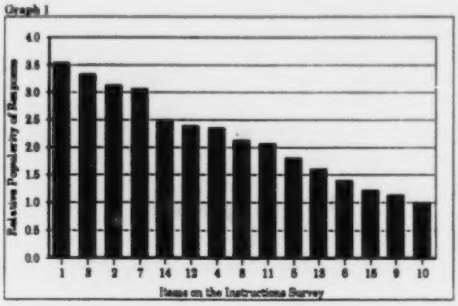

Figure 1: Freshman Class Results

When we look at Figure 2 (see page 3), from students with classroom experience abroad, items 1, 3, 4 and 2 might be expected in the high range. But item 11, "I ____________ just try the activity by myself, with a partner or in a group," could be at 2.6 due to a greater level of motivation, confidence or initiative. Both the Freshman Class and general population scored only 2.1. An expected result from the International students was item 13, "I ____________ ask the teacher to explain in Japanese." At 0.5, this was far lower than the collective score of 1.5.

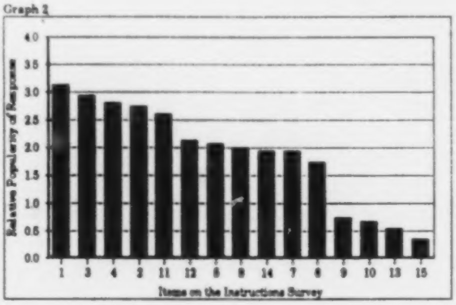

Figure 2: International Communication Class Results

**Figure 3 shows the results of all 117 responses,though I think that this information is quite far removed from the reality of each individual classroom.**

Graph 3

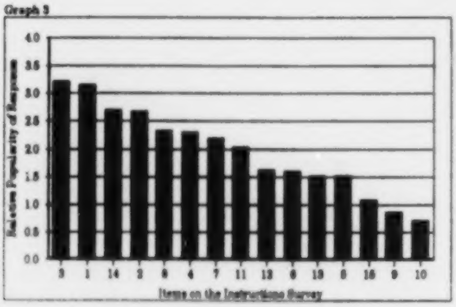

Figure 3: All Surveyed Students Results

There were, however, some interesting results to consider. Item 14, "I ____________ ask my classmates to explain in Japanese," scored in the high range (2.7). It is easy to believe that asking classmates in Japanese is quite common for the student population in general, though the International students scored only 1.9. Item 12, "I ____________ look in a dictionary," was low for all students (1.6), but both the Freshman and International students scored higher (2.4 and 2.1 respectively). I can only guess that this shows the effects of individual differences among classes and ultimately, among individuals.

Of course, the most important result for me was that the anxiety never returned. After giving the survey to a class, I felt so confident that I sometimes gave handouts without any verbal instructions at all. They had to ask me how to complete it. Even this increased emphasis on student responsibility resulted in an enjoyable lesson.

## The accompanying questionnaire

One of the drawbacks of the original survey was that I never asked students directly if they thought doing the survey reduced anxiety. So after consulting with colleagues, I decided to write a four-item questionnaire to accompany the survey (see Appendix). This asked students to give their reactions to the survey and make predictions.

The first item, "Circle the [items] you were aware of...," was included in hopes that students would more deeply reflect on the items and their own style of interaction with their teachers. The second, "How do you feel when you don't understand...," would give us an idea of how our students are reacting when they are unable to understand. The possible initial responses, like "Perplexed or unhappy" (with Japanese translation; see Appendix), avoided the use of close synonyms to get students to think more deeply about the choices and not choose indiscriminately (Cholewinski, in press).

Perplexed or unhappy
Shy or embarrassed
Anxious or uncomfortable
Nothing special
Other ____________

After checking one of the above items, students were asked to briefly explain. Again, this helped students to provide a more thoughtful response.

The third item asks students to predict whether knowing these items will help them, and the fourth whether they will try to use them consciously in the future. A word of caution: I think that students would not consciously use each of these items. That would, as one student responded, "make (them) act unnaturally." I think the awareness that these possibilities exist and can be employed at any time is the benefit.

The following are selected examples of responses from the Freshman Class and International Communication Class. These comments gave me a much better understanding of students' attitudes towards anxiety during instructions than the original survey. I think they speak well for themselves (errors remain as written):

2 How do you feel when you don't understand a teacher's instructions immediately?

**Freshman Class**

- Perplexed or unhappy. "I wanna take part in class."
- Perplexed or unhappy. "When I confuse, I regret."

- Anxious or uncomfortable. "I feel uncomfortable, I don't know what is doing."
- Other: "Mortifying. I mortifying that I don't understand teacher's say thing."

**International Communication Class**

- Perplexed or Unhappy. "Because I sometimes can't ask the teacher again."
- Perplexed or Unhappy. "Because in spite of studying English in England, I can't understand."
- Nothing Special. "Because I think that I can ask teacher, "Could you tell me again?" after he/she said."
- Other: "want to know it. Because if I can't understand it I'm going to be perplexed, so I want to avoid to be perplexed."

3 Do you think that being aware of these ways will make you feel more relaxed?

**Freshman Class**

- Yes. "I don't feel uncomfortable when I know many ways to understand."
- Yes. "If I understand all of your said. I'm very fun and happy."
- Yes. "If I understand teacher saids, next reaction is easy."
- Yes. "I can teach to my friends."

**International Communication Class**

- Yes. "Of cause, If I know these ways, I can easy to understand what I should do."
- Yes. "If it is so, I can join the class more."
- Maybe. "Each teacher has different way of teaching, so if I can understand their teaching style, maybe I can understand the class more."
- I don't know. "If I know many ways to understand the teacher's instructions, I know their instructions are bad."

4 Will you try to use them in your classes?

**Freshman Class**

- Yes. "Because, be myself."
- Yes. "So I can understand always."
- Yes. "I already doing the ways to understand."
- I don't know. "I'm very shy."

**International Communication Class**

- Yes. "I want to learn more easily."
- Yes. "If I know these ways, I'm not be nervous."
- Maybe. "Because depends on situation."
- I don't know. "It's very difficult to get used to their teaching style because I got a different style. Maybe I can try."

## Conclusion

A great deal of time could be spent analyzing the deeper meanings of the survey results or criticizing the survey questions, procedures or usefulness. It is also clear that different applications of this survey are literally endless. But the most important result of this revised version was that in my classes, and hopefully in other classes as well, students and teachers could feel less anxious during instructions. I attribute this positive result in part to a greater awareness of what is possible during instructions and to the benefits of conducting action research.

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## Appendix
## The Accompanying Questionnaire

·Read the questions carefully and then answer in detail. Please use English if possible.
質問をよく読んで、できるだけくわしく答えてください。なるべく英語で書くこと。

1 Look at the list of ways to understand teachers$^{2}$ instructions. Circle the ones you were aware of before today$^{2}$s activity.
先生の指示を理解するための方法のリストを見て、今日の課題の前に、自分がわかっていたものに丸をつけなさい。

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15

2 How do you feel when you don$^{2}$t understand a teacher$^{2}$s instructions immediately?
先生の指示がすぐに理解できない時、どう思いますか？

- Perplexed or unhappy 混乱する; 悲しい
- Shy or embarrassed 恥ずかしい
- Anxious or uncomfortable 不安 - Nothing special 別に何も感じない
- Other その他

Could you briefly explain your answer? 簡単に理由を書いて下さい。

3 There are many ways to understand teachers$^{2}$ instructions. Do you think being aware of these ways will make you feel more relaxed and comfortable during instructions?
先生の指示を理解するには色々な方法があります。それらの方法を知っていると授業中もっとリラックスできたり気楽になったりできると思いますか？

- Yes はい
- No いいえ
- Maybe たぶんできる - I don$^{2}$t know わからない
- Other その他

Could you briefly explain your answer? 簡単に理由を書いて下さい。

4 Now that you are more aware of the ways to understand teachers$^{2}$ instructions, will you try to use them in your classes?
先生の指示を理解するための様々な方法を学んだ今、これからそれらの方法を授業中に使ってみようと思いますか？

- Yes はい
- No いいえ
- Maybe たぶんできる - I don$^{2}$t know わからない
- Other その他

Could you briefly explain your answer? 簡単に理由を書いて下さい。

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# How Students Account for their Poor English Skills

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Among my colleagues and friends who teach English conversation classes at the college level, a commonly heard complaint from their students is "This is supposed to be a conversation class, but there isn't any conversation in this class." Upon hearing this, you scratch your head and think to yourself, "That's funny. My job title clearly states Instructor of English Conversation, and that's what I've been teaching every week for the past year. I am schooled in ESL theory and I believe and practice the communicative approach. I do pair-work and group-work activities and have stocked up on the general tools of the trade. So, how can the students say I haven't been teaching them conversation? What do they really mean when they say this? After getting over the initial feelings of bafflement (and, yes, some annoyance), I began to ask myself, "What do students mean by lack of conversation? Are they unhappy about their own lack of oral production or that of their classmates? Were they really dissatisfied because their perceptions of a conversation class were not met or was this simply a blanket excuse to complain about other underlying problems they experienced in the class?"

The objective of the study is to investigate the basis of the abovementioned complaint by examining how college students perceive and assess their English conversation classes. To what or to whom do the students attribute their difficulties in acquiring oral English? It is a cliche to say that, in general, Japanese students are passive in the classroom. The other commonly heard statement is that Japanese are shy. Too often these cultural traits are used as excuses for students' failure to learn and speak English. What exactly do they mean when they say they are shy? They certainly do not act that way outside of the classroom. Why are they so passive? Are they really bored and disinterested? Is it too difficult for them? Or are there other factors involved in making them passive in the classroom? In my research I attempt to answer some of these questions by eliciting specific reasons why some students seem to have such a difficult time in English conversation classes.

## The Students

A total of 189 junior college and university students were represented in the study. At the junior college the students were first and second year English conversation class female students. At the university the students were first, second, and third year English conversation class male and female students. A majority were English majors who were required to enroll in English conversation courses. The students at the junior college were leveled according to their abilities based on an oral exam administered at the beginning of the academic year. At the university the students were grouped according to their homeroom. Analysis of the data did not reveal any significant differences in student attitudes. The fact that the junior college was single sex and the university coed did result in some differences in relation to classroom dynamics, which I interpreted as basically positive. Male and female students often engage in self-segregation in the classroom, with male students sitting on one side of the room and female students sitting on the opposite side. But when randomly paired together to complete tasks, they were actually quite active and productive. There were also some differences in opinions between students in first, second, and third year conversation classes, but in most cases I attribute these differences more to personality within each class rather than year of students.

## Method

The scope of my research was accomplished through the collection of data utilizing class evaluations, information culled from informal interviews with students, and observation of the classes in the course of the semester. The main part of the evaluation consisted of a questionnaire. Five areas in which students were to evaluate their experiences and level of satisfaction with their English conversation classes were included: (1) classroom atmosphere; (2) the textbook; (3) the handouts; (4) the instructor; and (5) the students themselves. Within each area were specific questions. In the area of classroom atmosphere, students were asked to state their opinions about the size of the class, pace of the lessons, attitude of classmates, etc. Regarding the textbook and handouts, students were asked to assess the interest, content, and difficulty levels of the materials. The instructor was evaluated based on the speed, volume, clarity, and level of her speech and explanations. The demeanor and attitude of the instructor towards her students and teaching were also evaluated. In the category of students they were instructed to answer questions concerning their study habits and efforts inside and outside of the classroom. The second part of the evaluation consisted of the ranking of five items related to learning English: (1) the school curriculum; (2) the text; (3) the teacher; (4) classmates; and (5) student motivation. Students were instructed to rank the five items from one to five, one being the most important factor in learning English and five being the least important factor in learning English based on their own opinions and experiences. The third part of the evaluation was self-explanatory and consisted of four open-ended questions: "I like English because ... "; "I don't like English because ..."; "English is difficult because ..."; and "The best way to learn English is ..." The fourth part of the evaluation was optional. Students were given the opportunity to express additional comments and opinions if they wished in English or Japanese.

## Analysis

The results of the questionnaire produced some obvious answers to why students have difficulty in an English conversation class and why they complain that there is no conversation (see Appendix). The majority of the students lack the necessary vocabulary in order to engage in meaningful dialogue because they seldom review what they learned in class. Rather than building a repertoire of new vocabulary words and useful phrases every week in order to help them improve, the students are basically at the same starting point every week. An analogy would be running in place—you expend the energy but you don't go anywhere. The students come to class and bring their textbooks. But their failure to review and utilize what they learn from week to week holds them back and keeps them at the same spot. The fact that most students felt it was adequate having English conversation only once a week also indicate that they do not understand what it takes to acquire a foreign language. (Cogan, 1995) They complain that they do not have the opportunity to utilize English and, therefore, cannot improve their skills, yet do not see the irony in not wanting to have more classes per week. Their expectations are unrealistic considering their lack of effort and initiative. Although they realize that the key to success in learning English involves practice and self-motivation, the results of the questionnaire suggest that many do not apply them in their English conversation classes (see Appendix).

In the ranking section of the evaluation, students overwhelmingly indicated that the instructor and self-motivation were the most important factors in acquiring English. Surprisingly, the importance assigned to their own classmates ranked consistently last in their assessment suggesting the importance students place on the vertical relationship between instructor and student in contrast to the horizontal relationship between student and student. Text and curriculum ranked equally low.

However, when asked to complete open-ended questions, the answers revealed that for many students the classroom atmosphere and the role of other students did have a significant bearing on whether they performed well in class. (Larsen-Freeman, 1991) Some of the students' fears in speaking up were directly linked to their self-consciousness regarding other students in the class. This included the perceived attitudes of other students in the class, lack of close friends, lack of teamwork, and the passivity of other students. The students themselves may not view and realize how important other students are in their language learning process, but as their answers reveal, other students were indeed directly related to whether they performed and utilized language in class and thus in learning English (see Appendix).

Most students reported that they held favorable opinions toward the instructor. Yet despite their positive perceptions of the instructor and overall positive attitudes about the class, these did not automatically promote active language acquisition.

## Educational Implications

Clearly the classroom environment, specifically student dynamics, plays a very important role in English language learning in Japan. As evidenced in this study, students explicitly blamed themselves for lack of effort and motivation in studying and learning English. Equally blamed, though implicitly, are other students in the class who detract from the learning environment by not being active, being too quiet, and failing to foster a friendly atmosphere conducive to learning. (Hoekje, 1993) The words nervous and shy appear frequently when students try to explain why they cannot learn English. A better word to describe their feelings is fear, — fear of making mistakes in front of others, fear of outdoing others, basically a fear of standing out especially if they do not know the other people very well. Classes where students get along with each other naturally show a higher participation rate. I have observed that second year students are sometimes more relaxed with each other and show more willingness to engage in conversation. Some students also seem to show an improvement in their attitude and performance during the second semester.

Other students set the tone and determine the atmosphere of the class, more so than the teacher. The students' passivity is influenced and governed by their classmates. The students may follow instructions given by the instructor, but it is the subtle cues from their classmates that play a stronger role in regulating their classroom behavior. It is our responsibility as instructors to recognize this situation. Instructors should be aware of the implicit as well as the explicit messages in the classroom. In order to produce a truly effective environment for language learning, students should be made aware that interactions between students are equally, if not more important, than interactions between teacher and students. This is not always an easy task but an understanding and awareness of these implicit messages will serve to guide the instructor when trying to create a classroom conducive to learning and fostering and nurturing positive attitudes in the classroom.

To respond to the students' claim that there is no English conversation in an English conversation class, — it's not that there is no talking in class. Rather, the students' expectations about what constitutes conversation are different from what they actually experience in class. Students are traumatized by exam English and so regard any formalized fashion of studying English with suspicion. (Nunan, 1993) This would explain their desire for conversation, specifically free talk. I would interpret this as reactionary emotional resistance - choosing a learning style completely different from what they had known, dreaded, and hated. Free talk ideally has no rules or parameters. It is spontaneous, and most important of all, natural. When students say they want English conversation, it is this natural and spontaneous free flow of ideas and information for which they are hoping. However, in order to engage in a conversation, even a basic one, students must acquire the necessary grammar and vocabulary. This can only be achieved through practice and effort. In a typical conversation class there is controlled practice leading to free practice. Students do not seem to appreciate the necessity of the controlled practice and reject it as boring and not "real" English. Students have to realize that learning English is not always fun and games. It requires work. Students should also realize the importance of student-student interactions because learning a language is a social, interactive process. (Toms, 1994) Teachers are facilitators. As facilitators we can help students learn by giving them support and guidance. We are not there to learn for them.

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## Appendix

*(1) Some Responses to Open-Ended Questions*

| | |
|---|---|
| I like this class because ... | It's a friendly class.<br>I have friends in the class.<br>I can learn with friends.<br>It is a pleasant class.<br>The students are positive.<br>I have many friends.<br>I like to speak with other students. |
| I don't like this class because ... | It's not active.<br>It is a quiet class.<br>Some students not positive and active.<br>Strangers are in the class.<br>Other students are not positive.<br>No friends in the class.<br>Not a friendly class.<br>Classmates are not friends.<br>Not everyone tries to use English often.<br>No teamwork.<br>Group work.<br>No discussion. |

***(2) Some Highlights of the Questionnaire***

- 61% reported that they would like to have class only once a week.
- 49% reported that 90 minute classes are too long.
- Although a majority reported coming to class every week, bringing their textbooks and being punctual,
- 59% never prepared before class and an overwhelming
- 73% never reviewed the lesson after class.
- 28% reported that they do not even try to use English during class.
- 48% reported being active in class sometimes, rarely, or never.
- 46% reported that they sometimes, rarely, or never worked hard in class.

# Exploring Teacher Education Through Video

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Teacher isolation is a real issue facing every teacher in every classroom. Whether or not we have daily contact with other teachers of our subject, most of us want more opportunities to talk with other professionals about ideas and work with them on practical issues of classroom teaching. We want more input and interaction regarding our teaching. As an institution that provides English language services at client sites around Japan, we face the physical reality that teachers will generally be teaching at the same time of day in quite separate locations. Few opportunities for either peer-observation, or team-teaching exist for our teachers. Yet each of you to a certain extent, share these forces of isolation—whether you are a part-time instructor working at several institutions, part of a tiny minority of English teachers at a larger institution, or simply have a tight schedule! This lack of teacher-teacher classroom interaction mandates a new approach to teacher development. Our approach has been teacher development through video. In this article we will cover our rationale and goals, the groundwork for the project, a description of the workshops, and finally feedback and reflections on this project.

## Rationale and goals

We began with the idea that teachers should direct their own "development," as opposed to receiving "training," using Freemans (1982) definitions. This is not to say that more structured "training" is not part of the broader "education" program at our institution — it is. This project, however, was designed to allow teachers to find their own roles and directions as teaching professionals. Yet, this very concept of development became our first hurdle. Julian Edge states:

> Here we are close to the heart of a paradox. When I use the word development, I always mean self-development. But that cant be done in isolation. Self-development needs other people: colleagues and students. By cooperating with others, we can come to understand better our own experiences and opinions. (1992, pp. 3-4)

From an institutional point of view, we can easily mandate the time, we can express our steadfast belief that continuing development is essential to the teachers as a group and as individuals as well as to the institution, and we can provide the money and the scheduling to facilitate such a project. Ultimately, teachers must choose their own course of growth, or there will not be any growth. "Teacher Development is no different from personal development, and as such can only be self-initiated, self-directed, and self-evaluated" (Underhill, 1992, p. 79). From the point of view of the teachers, attending mandatory training sessions is entirely different from modifying ones paradigms for continuing professional development. It is deeper, and personally valid; therefore, we chose to keep training sessions on a paid voluntary basis. Following the suggestions of Nunan (1992) and Underhill (1992), our goal as workshop facilitators was to create a climate of trust and support in which individuals could discover a means of developing as teachers. That climate, in turn, would make continuing development, dialogue, and professionalism standard. The rest of the paper will consider how we conducted this project, and what the results were.

### Groundwork

We began with the results of a teacher survey indicating the teaching staff felt a need for more opportunities for teacher education, and that some teachers would like to observe each others' classes more often to share ideas and to learn from each other. The administration is keen to improve teaching quality, and sees increased teacher education as one way to achieve this. Serendipitously, efforts to improve feedback to learners had led us to purchase seven video cameras to record classroom activities for revision and awareness.

Before finalizing the format of teacher development workshops, we resurveyed our teachers regarding their enthusiasm, attitudes, and interest. Teachers commented on previous teacher training or development. They were also asked whether educational change tends to be administration led or teacher led, and which they thought might be more effective. Bottom-up change seemed to be superior to us, based on Nunan (1989), Webb (1992), and Gul (1993), but we were interested in what our instructors thought. Teachers that responded agreed upon two broad concepts and that agreement seemed unrelated to qualifications or teaching experience:

- educational change comes from joint administrative/teacher initiatives (in contradiction to our background research)
- interaction with teachers is the best way to develop as teachers (in agreement with our background research)

A final question of whether teachers could help each other by only listening produced a mixed response. Some saw an opportunity for idea or activity exchange. Others felt simply listening was unlikely to achieve anything, and additional idea sharing and constructive criticism would be needed to hone their own views. A small number pointed out the value of verbalizing thoughts to clarify them. One teacher pointed out that most people are, subconsciously at least, aware of the answers to their own problems, and verbalization can open ones awareness and enable them to tackle their problems.

In the initial workshop, teachers refined the design of the workshop, and drew up the following broad vision of what the workshops would be used for:

- training in education
- developing professionalism
- creating a sharing culture
- developing the quality of teaching
- fostering the commitment of teachers
- developing a spirit of team-work and mutual support

None of these suggestions apply specifically to the concept of using video for peer observation; however, they do indicate a foundation of beliefs that could support "development" existed among the participants.

A video recording of consenting teachers at work was also shown. The participants were asked if and how video could be used as part of a long term teacher development initiative. Since many teachers were eager to observe their peers in the classroom, teachers could be encouraged to take a video camera along to one of their classes and present parts of those video recordings in the workshops. This idea was met with a mixture of enthusiasm and reluctance. Reluctance is understandable since presenting one's video to a group of peers is akin to having several observers in one's classroom. Merely the word "observation" conjures up the terrifying feeling of "evaluation." The depth of effect often depends on their experiences. Fitzpatrick suggests:

It may be that the judgemental role of the observer in such instances makes teachers subsequently reluctant to let a colleague into their classroom. Consequently, it is important to remove any notion of 'the right way to teach' and to provide a clear framework for the way that the observations are to be carried out if the scheme is to be constructive, 'safe' and rewarding. (1995, p. 14) Thus, the first issue to address at our training sessions was creating safe, rewarding environment that was also interactive and constructive.

Our participants are still struggling with the concept of constructive criticism. To offer criticism that is both phrased constructively and then taken constructively can be hard — at times it seems impossible. "Most observation is for teacher-evaluation purposes, with the result that teachers generally regard observation as a threat. This leads to tension in the classroom, and tension between teacher and observer at any pre- or post-observation meetings" (Sheal, 1989, p. 93). We are so accustomed to this evaluation paradigm that we often express thoughts more harshly than we intend, particularly when those issues are closely related to ego-intensive topics: faith, ethics, and in our case, career. We approached this challenge from two angles based on Edges ideas from his text *Cooperative Development* (1992), and Faneslows "mirroring" concept from *Contrasting Conversations* (1992).

Particularly important in cooperative development is the idea of an "Understander," a person who can understand a colleague's ideas in a judgement-free context and who can by reflection help that colleague better understand himself and choose his own direction for growth. The term reflection echoes Faneslows mirroring. Faneslows concept, however, comes from the opposite direction: the listener sees his own reflection in the speaker, "as I look in my lens I consider you a mirror; I hope to see myself through your teaching" (1988, p. 115). We hoped that sensitizing activities for these two purposes would create the necessary environment. Admittedly, this was a new approach for us and for our teachers. As a case in point, when we presented Faneslows quote above, a teacher whom we consider very sensitive to emotional issues reacted quite strongly: "This is bull___!" she said. Her reaction illustrates the breadth of the paradigm shift we were asking of our teachers, and we had a long way to go.

## The sessions

A regular development workshop to include video observation was proposed by us, in response to teacher suggestions. Decisions about framework and content were left to the participants. Since participants "buy into" the scheme, they have a personal investment in making it successful, as Nunan notes:

> Following the principle that adults value their own experience as a resource for further learning and that they learn best when they have a personal investment in the program, workshop content should, as far as possible, be derived from the participants themselves. (1989, p. 112)

Administrative consultation would be both available and low profile. Thus, the participants were empowered to direct their own professional development. Here is the framework that was chosen:

- An atmosphere of mutual trust and support is encouraged so that individuals can develop as teachers.
- Each week, one teacher chooses a class, and gains the students' permission to record the class.
- The teacher video records all or part of the lesson. Before the workshop the teacher edits the video for use in a single workshop.
- The teacher acts as presenter and sets the scene and the task(s).
- Observers make every effort to be non-judgmental during discussion.
- Criticism is to be avoided and feedback is to be constructive.

The participants discussed ways of overcoming reluctance to show others anything but the best clips of their lessons. "One can in fact learn as much from instances of poor practice as one can from successful practice" (Nunan, 1989, p. 112). It was hoped that the participants would overcome their inhibitions in trying to understand performance to attain their potential following Underhill's (1992) equation, Performance + Development = Potential. The aim of showing and watching was clearly stated as not evaluation but self-exploration. "Observing others or ourselves to see teaching differently is not the same as being told what to do by others. Observing to explore is a process: observing to help or evaluate is a product" (Faneslow, 1992, p. 183).

Another important issue for our group was the intrusive effect of a video camera in our classrooms. On many occasions learners' behavior is altered significantly with the introduction of an observer. Students, too, have an aversion to being observed, if they feel they are being evaluated! Through example and practice, these difficulties were addressed in a variety of ways —student control of the equipment, making the taking of the video part of the lesson, placing the camera in the farthest corner of the room, videotaping the teacher rather than the students — with a corresponding variety of effects.

After discussion, thought, and preparation, the teachers bundled up their cameras, went to their classes, recorded themselves, did their editing, bit the bullet, and shared their ideas. The specific workshops and the details of the workshops are, for this article, not as important as the effects on teachers' professional development.

## Feedback and reflections

After several months of the project, we elicited feedback from the twenty-odd participants in the workshops — including ones that had attended and later opted out. The most frequent comment regarded a desire for more structured or specific workshops. We were a little taken aback, because, as I mentioned earlier, our teacher education program includes more structured, technique-specific training in things like error correction and classroom management. Further discussion revealed that many who wanted more specifics were actually commenting more on the inconsistency of the video presenters' presentations. Some presenters carefully edited their videos, created worksheets and other tasks based on their ideas for their own video, while others simply showed their video and asked for feedback and discussion. Indeed, it is a valid comment. How much can quality be improved by administrative involvement, and more clearly stated expectations, and how much variation is inherent in participant-centered workshops where teachers have different teaching styles? The question of how quality affects learner/participant-centered projects is an excellent subject for future research.

Another comment that was almost as frequent was a hope for more guidance or a sense of direction. Each workshop by its nature was modular. Not only because we were dealing with different teachers, and classes, but also because there was no way to guarantee the same participants from one week to the next. This seems linked to our learning paradigm. Participants seemed to be asking to improve in tangible or measurable ways from week to week, so that they could build toward a goal. Perhaps some grouping of focus in videos could take place, yet chances are that such a structure would prove more detrimental than beneficial. The very nature of the program focuses on long term benefits and continuing development. The desire for short term, measurable gains seems to run counter to those goals. Significant anecdotal evidence supports our belief that these long term goals are being met. Teachers have made comments like: "I'm really pleased. Since I started teaching here I've really changed my teaching. It's so much better" or "I really like teaching here, we get so much support and training."

While some of our support for the success of the project is anecdotal, we have seen tangible changes in interaction patterns among the teaching staff. Where the amount of time they spent in our head office doing research, preparation, and administration had been minimal before, we now had large numbers of teachers coming in on a regular basis, and quite often starting an hour before the workshops, and continuing for an hour or more after. Administrative details — reports, scheduling, etc. — ran much more smoothly. Social interaction between teachers also increased, which may not have direct effects on professional development, but a greater sense of community within the institution must be a plus. A few teachers even began doing joint research projects which have turned into training sessions for other teachers and may turn into something more.

These blossoming projects are indeed the gem of our workshop project. Tessa Woodward similarly describes a ripple effect in teaching and training:

> A more natural way forward may be to start experimenting and apply insights one at a time. This fits the current 'post-method' thinking and is in line with the current metaphor: the 'teacher as researcher'. . . . You may start with an apparently tiny change and find that the ripple effect is considerable and beneficial throughout the course. (1996, p. 9)

Our ripple effects include the research mentioned above, teaching retreats, materials development, simulations for working toward institutional goals, as well as task forces to share information and address issues among different sections. The kernel of change is working and growing from the impetus of this joint administrative/teacher video observation project.

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# Cross-cultural Aspects of Teachers' Roles

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Recent research by the presenter in Teacher Education courses in Japan and the U.S. has shown that teachers in these two countries see their role in the classroom very differently. These future and present teachers have different views of the ideal characteristics required to pursue the career of teaching. Different qualities may be desired to be perceived as a good teacher in Japan and this also may account for differences between outcomes in the two school systems.

## The Statistical Survey

In the study, two clases of future teachers (25 Japanese teachers of English and 25 American teachers) were asked to rate the most important characteristics in a good teacher. The results of the survey showed a distinct culturally bound view of the ideal characteristics required to pursue a career in teaching. In the survey the subjects listed the characteristics which they viewed as most important in the teachers they most admired in their secondary school experience. In this way the qualities were listed and ranked. A comparison of the top rated qualities chosen by each group is as follows.

"A good teacher is someone who ______________________."

| | Survey in Japan | Survey in the U.S. |
|---|---|---|
| gives good advice | 88% | 4% |
| helps students feel comfortable | 71% | ? |
| is interesting | 65% | 83% |
| helps students to improve | 65% | ? |
| is understandable | 59% | 17% |
| knows students well | 59% | ? |
| makes students think | 53% | 57% |
| gives a lot of information* | 53% | 61% |
| is understanding and kind | 53% | 43% |
| is friendly | 53% | 43% |
| is fair | 53% | 26% |
| respects students | ? | 43% |
| is organized | ? | 52% |
| is dedicated | ? | 39% |
| motivates students | ? | 48% |
| encourages creativity | ? | 39% |

*Intelligent and Knowledgeable
? = subjects did not choose this quality

While the two groups of teachers agreed on some of the qualities (interesting, makes students think, gives lots of information, friendly, understanding, and kind), there are other characteristics on which the two groups did not agree. The Japanese teachers emphasized that the teacher should give good advice (88%), know students well (59%), make students feel comfortable (71%), and help students improve (65%). The American teachers listed other qualities as more important to them: respects students (43%), is organized (52%), is dedicated (39%), motivates students (48%), and encourages creativity (39%). Understandable was a characteristic which 59% of the Japanese teachers listed, but only 17% of the American teachers agreed. For American teachers it was most important that a teacher be interesting (83%), but for the Japanese teachers this was tied for third most important at 65%.

The results of this study, if they hold true for other groups of teachers in both countries, would have far reaching implications for the teaching profession, for teacher training, and for the educational systems of both countries (Wright 1993, 1994, 1995). In order to test some hypotheses about differences between the two countries, an effort was made to collect other kinds of evidence which would corroborate similar conclusions about the differences between the educational process in the two countries. One type of evidence which was presented was in the form of videotapes of students' practice teaching. Another type was classroom observation in both countries.

## Videotaped Evidence

Videos of students' practice teaching in Japan and the U.S. were shown to illustrate some differences in teaching style. Portions of the videotaped practice lessons illustrate how the teaching style which the student teachers deemed important correspond to some characteristics which they listed as essential to good teaching.

In Videotape example A, an American teaching candidate conducts a U. S. History class for Japanese students. In her lesson plan, she was going to discuss the reasons for the Vietnam War. However, her students had expected her to give a lecture on that chapter. She planned to have a class discussion with the students and hoped that they had read the chapter about the Vietnam War in the assigned text and that they would be able to discuss opposing views on the war in such a way as to demonstrate their critical thinking skills on a controversial topic. However, she was unprepared for the response of Japanese students who refused to look at her and declined to volunteer information or disagree with assertions she was making. As she tried to get her students to discuss the topic in a critical way, they continued to look at their desks politely with little comment until the teacher changed her method to a more acceptable lecture mode.

In Videotape Example B, a pair of Japanese teacher candidates conduct an English class for Japanese students. These students stood formally in front of the class and asked the students two at a time to read the dialogue about students meeting in a cafeteria on campus from a text that they had been given. The pair of teachers modeled and explained the dialogue for the class beforehand. However, the students responded as required by reading the dialogues but without any additional style or inflections of their own and without much enthusiasm.

In Videotape Lesson C, four American teacher candidates conduct an integrated Science class for their classmates who posed as immigrant children. In this lesson, the teachers read a science story book about a tree in the rain forest. First, they got the students' attention by creating a scene with posters, sounds, music, and costumes. As one teacher read, the other teachers took turns acting out the scenes in the book and finally the students were asked to take part in the activities in a sort of readers' theater competition between groups of students. There was good involvement of students, and the teachers allowed plenty of room for creativity.

The differences in the teaching methods in the three groups reflect basic differences in what was perceived by the teachers to be the best way to present their material. In examples B (practicing dialogues) and C (an interactive media lesson), the teachers felt that they knew their students' expectations for a lesson and they tried to conform to these expectations. In example A, the teacher misunderstood the expectations of the students who had been anticipating a lecture and were prepared to take notes. It was the teacher who had to change her methods.

## Classroom Observations

Classroom observations by this researcher in Japan and the U.S. confirm that the videotapes reflect an accurate picture of how classes are being conducted differently in the two countries. This researcher believes that the differences in classroom behavior are indicative of the differences in expectation of the students.

In Example A, from a Japanese junior high school classroom in Kobe, students were asked to practice dialogues much as in the videotape B. After this, the students sat at their desks individually writing out English grammatical exercises. The teacher stayed in the front of the class most of the time and only circulated late in the class period to check answers to questions that the students had completed individually.

In Example B, from a Japanese college in Tokyo, the professor stood in front of the class reading from a notebook of Economics lectures while the students copied what he was saying. At times he paused from his lecture to let students catch up to where he was in his notebook while he wrote some figures on the board.

In Example C from a U.S. History classroom in a California high school, the teacher began by asking students to take 10 minutes to imagine that they were soldiers in World War I and were writing a letter home from the Front. What things would they write about concerning the war and what things would they say about other events of the day? How would they have felt about fighting in the war? Next they were asked to make maps of the current territorial boundaries of countries of that time period. Finally they split into groups to create U.S. History questions for a "Jeopardy contest" that would be held the following day. They students seemed interested and engaged in their activity as the teacher circulated and gave help and encouragement.

## Conclusions

Although it is difficult to draw any firm conclusions from a limited sample, it appears that the evidence is indicative of different outcomes in the educational systems of Japan and the U.S. especially in the area of teachers, students, teacher training, and the educational system as a whole.

In the area of teachers' outcomes, one implication of the study seems to be that different qualities may be needed to be a successful teacher in Japan than are required to be successful in the U.S. Thus a teacher who is educationally qualified to teach in the U.S. (Celce-Murcia, 1991, pp. 5-9) may lack the other characteristics necessary for teaching in Japan (Wright 1994) and the converse may also be true. The reason for differences is probably that our schools reflect our cultural values and the cultural norms that we wish to instill in our students.

In the area of student outcomes, an important implication is that differences in the outcomes of the school experiences (in the two countries) could be tied to the different characteristics needed by teachers in the two cultures or educational goals in the two cultures. In the U.S. school system, for example, where creativity and individuality or critical thinking are stressed, the students who exit from the system will have developed their creativity and individuality. Whereas in Japan, where creativity and individuality are not necessarily encouraged, the students will be less well developed in this way.

In the area of teacher training, it is important to note that Japanese classrooms are monocultural. But between 1980 and 1990, over 7.1 million people from diverse cultures immigrated to the U.S. thus impacting on the public schools (Garcia, 1994, p. 7). This means that teacher training in states such as California with large numbers of immigrants needed to take into account the diverse background of students coming to school (Darder, 1991, pp. 118-128). Thus, special teacher training needed to be given so as to prepare teachers for teaching diverse students (Nieto, 1996, p. 353). Similarly, any school system with large numbers of non-native students will need to adapt teacher training and classroom practices to suit the students' needs. As a result, teachers who are trained to teach in these systems are prepared to teach in the multicultural or foreign culture setting.

In the area of the educational system, it seems that even the goals of the educational systems of the two countries are different. In the U.S. there may be more emphasis on treating each student as a unique individual responsible for his own actions in society whereas in Japan there may be a need to reaffirm the responsibilities of each member of the class to work together to accomplish their goals. Thus, any changes in teaching methods need to be balanced against the changes which will result in society as a whole (Wright, 1995, p. 13). Changes in teachers' roles, teaching methods, and teaching style in a country may lead to unexpected changes in the society.

## Questions from the participants

**Question:** You said that your study assumed that the student teachers were patterning their expectations for good teachers on the teachers that they had experienced in their own schooling. What happens if we don't admire anyone that we have had for a teacher?

**Answer:** Yes, that is a valid point. What does happen in the case that you have seen nothing to emulate in previous teachers? I think that your previous teachers have influenced you to react against the model of teaching that they represented. Isn't it possible that you are reacting against what you have experienced by trying to find a better way to teach?

**Question:** I wonder whether a teacher could modify the way students learn in his classroom. Is it possible to help them develop their learning style or is this just a form of the cultural imperialism that Dr. Braj Kachru spoke of in his plenary address?

**Answer:** I think that the type of cultural imperialism referred to by Kachru (1996) and Edge (1996) is a conscious effort on the part of a teacher to modify behavior as he wants it to be. In one such scenario, a teacher from another country comes to Japan and requires students to modify their previous learning style in favor of a style which the teacher prefers. What follows is a mismatch of the teacher's and the students' expectations. On the other hand, learner development involves a teacher helping students to find their own ideally suited learning style (Chamot and O'Malley, 1994, pp. 16-17.) whether or not it matches that of the teacher.

**Question:** Isn't it possible that an ESL teacher might teach students to behave differently in their classes (for example, to question authority) and perhaps cause a potentially threatening situation for other teachers in their school?

**Answer:** Yes, this is a real problem in some classrooms where visiting teachers have been invited to team teach with local teachers (Snow, 1996, pp. 38-39, 276). The visiting teacher proposed teaching students how to respond in the way that he, the teacher, wanted. In other words, to develop their learning style to match those of the teacher. But the local teachers in the school did not want this kind of behavior in their classes and felt threatened. But without a concerted effort on the part of all of their teachers, students will probably not be able to rapidly adapt to such a change in teaching style for just one ESL class per day. Obviously if the other teachers do not want to change their own teaching methods to conform to the ESL teacher's preferred style then changes will not occur.

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# Materials Writers NSIG Workshop: Professional Critique of Preliminary Textbook Manuscripts

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The workshop organizer and moderator was Jim Swan, Materials Writers (MWNSIG) Chair. The four editors who kindly agreed to participate were: Nancy Baker (Prentice-Hall, Asia); Michael Boyd (Longman, Asia); Chris Foley (Oxford University Press); and Debbie Goldblatt (Cambridge University Press).

Prior to the workshop, calls were made through The Language Teacher and the MWNSIG newsletter for textbook manuscripts (MS's) to be presented anonymously to the participating editors for reviewing. There were four submissions, all attractively presented:

1. a conversational course textbook
2. an English-through-music book
3. an activity book
4. a general four-skills book

They were generally considered by the editors to target too small a niche to become viable commercial textbooks. Each made some use of computer graphics but the fourth one in particular was complimented on its design and layout.

The editors all complimented the workshop afterwards, contrasting its specificity to similar TESOL workshops, which have usually been too general and without actual MS's to focus comments on. Unfortunately, comments on the individual MS's at this JALT96 MWNSIG workshop were very brief due to time constraints. The editors' comments are summarized in the following section.

## General comments on publishers' criteria for acceptance of a textbook manuscript

The main point made, both at the beginning and at the end of the workshop, was that developing a working relationship with a publisher is the best way to get published, if only because that is the way publishers organize their projects. Sending a manuscript to an editor without any prior communication is generally unproductive, since the MS will probably not even be looked at. There are few exceptions to this rule, and the extensive general comments from the four editors elaborated on the reasons why unsolicited materials have a very high probability of being rejected.

Michael Boyd explained that his company publishes 60-70 textbook titles a year, from specifically organized projects. In addition, 100-200 unsolicited proposals are received. With works of fiction this is no problem, but unsolicited MS's in the field of language teaching are normally destined for the rubbish bin. If a publishing editor even looks at such a MS, he is likely to ask him?herself the following questions:

- Do we need it? Do we already have something fitting this niche?
- Does it fit into the company's long-term plan? (Most companies have various long-term strategies in play.)
- Are there any resources to invest in it? Do we have the staff?
- Is it good? Good is a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for acceptance.
- Will the author promote? That is, is the author well-known?

Chris Foley fully endorsed the above points and added the following:

- Does this MS make an educational contribution? That is, does it provide a unique, interesting solution to learning problems?
- Will it have a wide enough audience to make publishing worthwhile? In particular, can non-native teachers use it without extra explanation?

Debbie Goldblatt added that the book should be self-explanatory and able to stand by itself. She encouraged prospective authors to call their chosen editor first and talk about their ideas. Nancy Baker advised that before presenting their material to a professional editor, authors should first show their material to co-workers and let them pilot it in order to iron out the inevitable preliminary glitches. This basic rule applies even for projects that have been agreed upon.

## Points to consider in textbook writing and preparation

1. Proposal: Provide the publisher with a clearly written, rational proposal arguing the reasons why (s)he should consider your textbook.
2. Competition: Know the market and know your competitors; find out which books yours would compete with and include these titles in your proposal.
3. Assumptions: What do target students already know about the subject and skills to be taught?
4. Organization: Plan the appearance of new grammar; it should not just appear but be built on and prepared

for in previous sections, etc.

5. Layout: Have a strong page layout (a) to ensure that the information on the page is communicated most effectively (this is applicable to all materials whether they are intended for publication or not); and (b) to determine the value of the manuscript.
6. Art specifications: The visual idea of the page (arrangement of text and pictures, etc.) is very important; rough drawings are perfectly acceptable.
7. Balance: A text on writing, for example, should not be limited to providing different types of letter format, etc.
8. Timing: 45 or 90 minute chapters, for example (well-defined "chunks"); note that in Japan teachers are said to prefer shorter lessons.
9. Signposting: Illustrate different stages/sections of the book.
10. Information ("teacher talk"): Text not actually for use by students belongs in the teachers' manuals or handouts; the main text should be mostly activities.

Among the various other points discussed, it was stated that copyright is the author's responsibility. Permission for all copyrighted material an author wishes to include in a textbook must be obtained before the publishing process begins. It was noted in particular that permission to use advertisements is very hard to obtain from the advertising companies; and that the length of time taken to obtain film copyright releases renders them too troublesome for publishers to consider. Still pictures used in language textbooks are usually obtained from agencies, which charge as much as US$1000 per photograph.

The main message of this workshop, then, was that the first move for the prospective textbook writer should be to approach a publisher to negotiate the writing of materials that fulfill the publisher's criteria. The route to becoming an established textbook writer usually begins with volunteering to critique or field-test textbooks already in preparation, as this is a good way to build a working relationship with a publisher. Textbook authorship then begins with an invitation to write teachers' versions of textbooks about to be published. If this is successful, main textbook authorship will follow.

# *Section Three*
# In the Classroom

# Cooperative Learning at the Post-Secondary Level in Japan

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## Introduction

Teachers in Japan are often faced with what seem to be insurmountable obstacles: large classes which meet relatively infrequently and students with low motivation. One solution to these challenges is to have students work in groups, but even then it's difficult to keep students in large classes talking and on task. In addition, keeping track of students' progress can be difficult in both small and large classes. This paper will present cooperative learning as an approach which can help solve some of these difficulties. Part 1 will be an introduction to the fundamentals of cooperative learning, including common misconceptions, the key elements of a cooperative lesson, examples of five different models, and a brief overview of the research in support of cooperative learning. Part 2 will be selections from a transcript of the roundtable discussion held at the JALT96 conference in Hiroshima. A reading list by topic area is provided in the Appendix.

## Part 1: Fundamentals of Cooperative Learning

### *A Definition of Cooperative Learning: What It Is and Isn't*

Before we define cooperative learning and discuss its benefits, we have presented some of the more common misconceptions regarding it in Table 1.

### Key Elements

Many of the misconceptions listed above exist because people often mistakenly equate cooperative learning with a more general idea of group work. Cooperative learning is a form of group work, but it goes beyond just putting students in groups and telling them to work together. A properly structured cooperative lesson looks much like a well-prepared traditional lesson: it has clearly defined roles for the students and clearly defined goals so students know what and how they're supposed to learn. There are nine key elements of a cooperative lesson.

1. Positive Interdependence. This is structuring group work so that in order for a group to succeed, all members in the group must meet their individual goals. There are several ways to encourage positive interdependence:

- *Positive Goal Interdependence*: A group might turn in a single paper or report, but all students must achieve their individual goals, e.g., increase their individual scores by 5%.
- *Positive Resource Interdependence*: A group might share one pencil and one piece of paper per group.
- *Positive Reward Interdependence*: Every group member gets 5 bonus points if all group members improve 5%.
- *Identity Interdependence*: Students choose a group name, flag, or sign.
- *Positive Role Interdependence*: A group

| Misconceptions | Actuality |
|---|---|
| "I've used cooperative learning and it doesn't work." | Merely putting students into groups and telling them to work together is not cooperative learning--there are several elements which must be present. |
| "I want students to learn to think for themselves." | Lessons are structured so each student must participate and is held accountable for learning the material. |
| "Gifted students end up doing all the work while lazy students get a free ride. The slower students will hold them back." | All students process material much more if they have to teach it. Individual goals can be set so all succeed. |
| "Cooperative learning is just an excuse for the teacher to be lazy." | The teacher chooses the material and the activity to teach it, sets goals, and structures the activity cooperatively. |
| "It's a competitive world and students must learn to compete in it." | Cooperative learning is used in conjunction with individualistic and competitive goal structures. |
| "Cooperative learning is a fad." | Cooperative learning has been statistically shown to enhance learning, improve comprehension and increase retention. Research on cooperative learning dates back to Morton Deutsch in the 1940s. |

Table 1: Common misconceptions about cooperative learning.

may have a reader, writer, encourager, checker, praiser.

- *Positive Outside Enemy Interdependence*: Group competition, or competition against a group's earlier score.

2. Team Formation. Research shows that heterogeneously grouped teams show more benefits than homogeneously formed teams (Dishon and O'Leary, 1984). Factors such as age, gender, race, nationality, and language proficiency could be considered in group formation. Cooperative groups usually consist of 2-4 members.

3. Accountability. Each individual is accountable for his or her own learning and is also accountable to the group. This means that grading takes into account individual grades and group grades (Olsen and Kagan, 1992).

4. Social Skills. Most teachers using group work assume that since the students have acquired the social skills required to work together in their native language, they don't need to be taught the same social skills in the foreign language. It is often necessary to explicitly teach the language and behavior needed to work together in English. Cooperative learning takes this into account and emphasizes the explicit teaching of social skills (Dishon and O'Leary, 1984).

5. Structures and Structuring. There are a set of ways to organize student interactions with other students and with the content (Olsen and Kagan, 1992). Each structure explains step-by-step what the teacher and students must do. These structures are generic, content-free procedures that can be used for any subject at any age or proficiency level.

6. Distributed Leadership. Dishon and O'Leary (1984) and other practitioners believe that all group members should have a turn as group leader.

7. Group Autonomy. The teacher should allow the students to solve their problems unaided so that each individual learns to rely on the members of the group to explain or to work out ambiguities together; the teacher steps in only as a last resort.

8. Group Processing. At the end of an activity or unit, the group should reflect on how it has performed by reviewing the skills that it practiced, what it did well, and what needs to be worked on next time. Teachers may provide a handout to track use of the skills.

9. Face to Face Promotive Interaction. For cooperative learning to be effective, the members of the group have to be in very close physical proximity, face to face.

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## Models of Cooperative Learning

The nine elements listed above are found in all models of cooperative learning in varying forms and degrees. The five most common models are The Structural Approach (Kagan, 1989), Group Investigation (Sharan & Sharan, 1992), Student Team Investigation (Aronson, 1978; Slavin, 1990), and Learning Together (Johnson, Johnson, & Johnson Holubec, 1991).

### *The Structural Approach*

The Structural Approach is based on the use of various distinct sequences of classroom behaviors, called structures (Kagan, 1989). A structure is not an activity. Rather, it is a framework within which an activity is done. Olsen and Kagan (1992) suggest that activities cannot often be reused meaningfully many times, but structures can be used over and over again with different curriculum materials and throughout a syllabus. Two examples of structures, Talking Tokens and Roundtable, are described below. For a more complete list see Olsen and Kagan (1992) or Kagan (1989).

Talking Tokens. Olsen and Kagan (1992) label this structure as a "communication builder." Each student must "spend" a token to speak. To talk, the student places a token in the center of the table. The student cannot talk again until all tokens are in the center of the table. Tokens are then retrieved and the process begins again.

Roundtable. Each group has one piece of paper and one pen. One student writes a contribution and passes the paper and pen to the student on the left. Roundtable can be used to introduce a new topic or theme or as a review and practice activity.

### *Group Investigation*

Group Investigation was developed by Yael and Shlomo Sharan and is nicely summarized in Sharan (1994). It incorporates four basic features: investigation, interaction, interpretation, and intrinsic motivation.

1. Investigation. The classroom becomes an "inquiring community," and each student is an investigator who coordinates his or her inquiry into the class' common research project which is a challenging, multifaceted problem presented by the teacher.
2. Interaction. Since the class must research a topic together, students have ample opportunities for interaction, which means they must learn to work as a team and discuss topics.
3. Interpretation. Students integrate information from a variety of sources and must then exchange information and ideas and integrate what they have learned with what their research partners share from their own investigations.
4. Intrinsic Motivation. Since students have control of their own learning, are actively involved in the project following guidelines which they set themselves, and must share what they have learned with others, there is a high level of motivation to learn.

### *Student Team Investigation*

This model of cooperative learning was developed by Aronson and Slavin at Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore, Maryland. Examples are the various kinds of jigsaw activities, and procedures to structure interdependence.

| | |
|---|---|
| *Jigsaw I* | Step 1. Each student individually becomes an expert on a topic.<br>Step 2. Students share their information with the small group. |
| *Jigsaw II* | The same as Jigsaw I, but all members have the same information. Each person is an expert on a certain task that has to be done with the information. |
| *Team Jigsaw* | Step 1. Each person belongs to a "home team."<br>Step 2. Each person in the team is assigned a number.<br>Step 3. Each number goes to a "mastery team" to master some information or task.<br>Step 4. Each student returns to home team to share information. |

### *Curriculum Packages*

Curriculum Packages are sets of cooperative learning material that are usually specific to a subject and age level. Two commercially published examples are:

Comprehensive Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC). Developed by Slavin, Leavey, and Madden (1986), CIRC is a program which combines cooperative learning procedures with specific basal reading programs.

Team Accelerated Instruction (TAI). Developed by Slavin et al. (1986), TAI is a program which uses cooperative learning procedures to teach mathematics.

### *Learning Together*

This approach was developed by David and Roger Johnson. Unlike the other more structured approaches to cooperative learning above, the Learning Together approach emphasizes the teaching and practicing of the social skills required to work together. Even though Japanese culture stresses group harmony, students need to learn how to work together successfully in a foreign language. Teachers learn to evaluate material to be taught, choose the type of activity appropriate to help students learn that material, and structure the activity so that all five of the elements that the Johnsons regard as necessary for a lesson to be cooperative (positive interdependence, individual accountability, group processing, social skills, and face-to-face promotive interaction) are incorporated.

## Does Cooperative Learning Work?

In the past 20 years, there have been numerous studies comparing more traditional methods of teaching, which are competitive or individualistic, with cooperative learning. Johnson and Johnson (1989) did a meta-analysis of 352 of these studies and showed that achievement was higher for students engaged in cooperative learning. Other researchers have shown that students more frequently use high-level reasoning strategies (Spurlin, Dansereau, Larson, & Brooks, 1984; Larson et al., 1985) and have higher scores on subsequent tests taken individually (Lambiotte et al., 1987). Studies have also been conducted to find out about students' satisfaction and self-esteem in the different environments. Cooperative learning has been shown to increase students' liking for other students (Cooper, Johnson, Johnson, & Wilderson, 1980), their own self-esteem (Slavin, 1983), their ability to be self-directed (Johnson, Johnson, Johnson, & Anderson, 1976), and their liking for the class in general (Kulik & Kulik, 1979).

In general, the studies in language classes have found that discussion groups and teams were better than whole class instruction for developing integrative and discrete language skills (Bejarano, 1987) and that students take more turns in cooperative learning groups compared to a teacher-centered class, thus gaining more practice in language production (Deen, 1991).

## Part II: Roundtable Discussion

The following discussion was part of the roundtable presented at JALT96. After hearing an overview of cooperative learning, participants were invited to ask questions of the panelists: Steve McGuire, Patricia Thornton (Tricia), and David Kluge. Limited space has made it necessary to choose representative questions from the discussion period. Verbatim accounts have been used below in order to retain the oral quality of the discussion.

**Question**: I have a question about accountability. If one student's paper is used for a whole group's grade and that student does badly, doesn't that create an atmosphere for bullying or other negative consequences?

Steve: In cooperative learning, students know what to expect. They have the chance to practice. They can coach each other and make sure that everyone in the group understands. There's motivation for students to help each other succeed. Also that score wouldn't be the grade for the entire year's class. It is just one activity of many the students will do.

David: There are several ways to hold a group, and individuals in a group, accountable. One is to take each individual's score plus the group's average. Another is to take one student's paper within the group as the group's score. And still another is to take each student's score plus the lowest person's score in the group. The lowest scoring student will, next time, work harder to achieve a higher score.

**Question:** *What do you do with a student nobody wants to include in their group?*
Tricia: Doing more team-building activities within the group is sometimes effective and trying to show the special strengths of the student who is unpopular. Or, as the teacher, I might design an activity that would highlight that student's abilities to help the other students appreciate them.

**Question:** *Do you usually have volunteer or assigned groups?*
Tricia: I usually assign groups because I want to build in as much heterogeneity as possible.
David: They can also be assigned randomly, using playing cards so that all hearts are in one group, all 4s are in one group, etc.

**Question**: What do you do when students are absent from long-term groups?
Steve: One thing I've done is wait for 2 or 3 weeks into a semester to assign groups. By about 3 weeks I have a good feeling for attendance. I grouped students so that if I had 4 students, at least 3 of them were in class most of the time. There is usually 75% or 50% there every week. I tried to balance it so I would have 3 members present every week.
Tricia: If the task is structured, and sometimes the tasks I develop are more structured than at other times, I have found that when every person has a particular role, or a particular task within a larger task, then it tends to be more successful.

**Question:** *What about the problem of keeping people in the target language? Is there a mechanism for doing that in cooperative learning or do you find that they automatically stay more in English?*
David: I think a lot of times they fall into the native language, the L1, because they don't have the language to do the task in the L2. So when you're talking about the task social skills, it's important to give them the language they need to do that task as well as the team-building social skills.

**Question**: Could you describe a little bit about what you do at the beginning of the semester when the students are *first being introduced to cooperative learning? How do you teach the processing language or the language needed for working in groups?*
Tricia: Rather than give students a lot of information at one time, I usually build as the semester goes on. So at the beginning I may take one week to talk about what cooperative learning is or to explain the groups. I will teach a little bit of the functional language that will be needed. Then every week I will add new phrases or new information.
Steve: The Johnsons recommend making T-charts. The T-charts have two columns which are used to describe what a social skill looks like and what it sounds like. For example "What does attentiveness look like?" might include nodding heads, eyes open, etc. "What does it sound like?" would include phrases the students might use to show they are listening such as "Um" or "Uh-huh" or "That's interesting," etc.

**Question**: Could you give some descriptions of some specific tasks that you've done?
Tricia: I'll start with reading. I had a class of 58 first-year junior college students who were reading American short stories. My goal for the class was that students would not only read and comprehend, but they would also be able to interact with each other and talk about the literature, especially the universal themes. So I used cooperative groups about every other week. One of my activities was designed to help students learn how to justify their opinions using specific text citations. Cooperative groups were given one sheet of paper with character names from 2 or 3 different stories we had read. As a group they had to first decide on a characteristic (one adjective) that described each character. Then each student in the group had to find a supportive statement in the text and write it on the piece of paper. This meant that one group had one piece of paper to which all students were contributing.
David: I used cooperative learning two weeks ago in my speaking class. I chose team jigsaw. We were doing a unit in the textbook about planning, so we planned a

Halloween party. I had them in home groups of 4 members. They had to decide what kind of party (costume, dance, etc.), the place to have it, and the entertainment. Each member had a number 1, 2, 3, or 4. After the home groups finished, new groups were formed with all 1's, all 2's, etc. Each person shared what their group decided with the new group. That new group had to come up with a composite of all the best ideas. Then, members went back to their home groups to share the composites. Finally, the whole class decided on the best plan.

Steve: Activities with just one partner are also possible. "Turn to your partner and ask them for 5 kinds of sports, or sports they like, or sports they can do." I like that activity because it's easy and the outcome is obvious to the students: "Wow, I thought of 5 things."

David: In writing I've had a roundtable where groups of 4 students will brainstorm on topics for writing. There's one paper and one person writes, passes it to the next student, and it just goes around and around for 5 minutes.

Tricia: I've also used jigsaw in writing classes. In the U.S. in a small ESL class, I wanted students to do peer editing. That's often difficult for ESL students. And so, in this class, I made groups of 2 or 3 students who were experts for a particular kind of editing. For example, one group was punctuation. Another group was spelling. One group looked for main ideas in paragraphs. I worked with each group to learn the rules or ideas for their area of expertise. Every group read everyone's paper at some point in the writing process. During the year the expert groups changed so that within a whole year every student would be an expert in most of the tasks.

## Conclusion

Cooperative groups can be a very effective way to help students have more opportunities to use language for real communication. Cooperative learning is more than just putting students in groups. It involves carefully structuring activities so that all students are required to participate in order for the group to be successful. Students are learning both task specific language and the social language and skills needed to do a task. Students are actively reflecting on their group performances and setting goals to improve.

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# Shared Inquiry Fosters Critical Thinking Skills in EFL Students

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"Highly interactive" is the key phrase that describes the language learning environments established in English classes that feature the *shared inquiry* method of reading and discussing outstanding world literature. Acceptance of the idea that students develop communicative competence "through communication, not through conscious structure practice" (Savignon, 1983, p. 65) has led foreign language educators to look for instructional strategies that will help create such settings. By including *shared inquiry* in the curriculum—posing genuine interpretive and evaluative questions about a rich work of literature and focusing on developing independent student responses—teachers can invite students to engage in authentic communication in a second language. With sustained practice, students learn to value their own questions, slowly acquire the confidence to express their own ideas, and are motivated to do their best when working collaboratively to solve real problems that interest them (Schifini, 1993). As reading for meaning and critical thinking skills are so fundamental to lifelong learning, students gain, not only from intensive practice using English, but from interactions that cultivate the habits of reflection and independent thought that make true cross-cultural communication possible.

Inquiry-based learning approaches in general rely on a constructivist model and reorient classroom activities around genuine questions from both teachers and students. The acquisition of competence in a foreign language can be enhanced through using such questions to develop the critical thinking skills that are the foundation of active learning. Krashen, for example, posits that mastery of facts and concepts is the result of problem solving (1982). *Shared inquiry*—a method of reading and discussing high quality literature developed by the Great Books Foundation, an

American non-profit educational organization—represents an effective way to develop these skills. As an alternative pedagogical approach to teaching English language and literature, *shared inquiry* helps fulfill Japanese Ministry of Education (Monbusho) guidelines, especially for the oral components of high school English. (For a more complete discussion of these points see Browning & Halvorsen, 1995, p. 23; Browning & Halvorsen, 1996, pp. 40-41; and Browning, Halvorsen, and Ahlquist, 1996, p. 220. For a discussion of the Ministry of Education guidelines, see Carter, Goold, & Madeley 1993; Goold, Madeley & Carter, 1993; Goold, Carter & Madeley, 1994.)

The *shared inquiry* approach to reading and discussion has proven effective with a wide range of Japanese students, including low-intermediate learners in a rural junior college, senior English majors in a private women's college, and adult NHK center learners who have previously used English while traveling or living abroad. Students in all these settings are guided in an exploration of the meaning of a complex work of literature by a teacher/discussion leader who is genuinely interested in finding out what they think about what they are reading. Selections as brief as "April Rain," a nine-line poem by Langston Hughes, or Aesop's short fable "Lion and Mouse" can be used with a group of upper-level beginners. Intermediate classes can discuss folk and fairy tales like "Jack and the Beanstalk," "The Ugly Duckling," the Ethiopian tale "Fire on the Mountain," or short fables like Tolstoy's "Two Brothers." Advanced classes might read a contemporary short story such as "Gaston" by William Saroyan or chapters from Kenneth Grahame's classic work, *The Wind and the Willows*. Each of these selections will support in-depth exploration of perennial human problems, while offering valuable opportunities for Japanese students to interact with literature from different cultures. [Note: the above selections are available from the Great Books Foundation; bibliographic references are included in the reference section.]

Providing the right guidance and support throughout the reading process is essential if the goal is to have L2 learners develop and express their own interpretations of what they have read. No matter what literature is chosen, teachers should first use a brief pre-reading activity to have students form connections between their own lives and some of the themes or issues they will encounter in the literature, especially if the text is from another culture or time period. The story must then be read several times—aloud by the teacher, aloud or silently by individuals or groups of students—with special care taken to encourage students to pose their own questions about what they have read. Students may be able to answer some of these questions immediately by pooling their knowledge or consulting dictionaries. Other questions may require outside research or further discussion. Note-taking activities that encourage divergent reader response and vocabulary work that focuses on multiple-meaning words in context also lay the groundwork for the interpretations that students are already beginning to develop. Working with partners and in small groups throughout these stages of preparation for discussion is motivating for students, brings variety to long class periods, and helps ensure that student interaction is collaborative.

Once students are familiar with the story, the teacher more fully takes on the role of inquirer in a 60-90 minute *shared inquiry* discussion. Discussion always focuses on a genuine problem of meaning in the work, a question that the leader believes has more than one answer in the text. By listening carefully and asking follow-up questions about students' responses, the leader encourages each member of the class to consider several possible solutions to the problem, test these against evidence in the text, and come to his or her own interpretation of what has been read. Asking students to prepare a written response to the question as homework before the discussion session is a good confidence-builder and ensures greater participation by all members of the class. If both an individual answer and "another answer you heard" are also written down after discussion, teachers can collect these as a way of monitoring listening abilities and participation, even by shyer students in large classes where everyone may not get a chance to speak every time.

One advantage of using this method of learning for teaching English to Japanese students is that the teacher starts the interaction at the students' level of ability and understanding. By exploring students' reactions to some of the issues raised before the reading, their questions and responses during reading, and their answers to interpretive questions during discussion, teachers can help students go one step further in their understanding. No matter what the participants' level of English, the leader guides discussions by listening carefully and asking only questions, so that students' words and thoughts are at the center of class activities. To articulate difficult concepts, students will occasionally need to express the idea first in Japanese and then work with classmates to translate it into English. This focus on their own ideas is highly motivating for students, however, since even beginning language learners have thoughts and opinions about the problems raised by outstanding literature. Highly favorable student evaluations comment that "In this class, we have to start thinking in English, so we work harder, but we get more out of it. . . ," and "I have never taken such a stimulating course before." For teachers, too, the emphasis on student ideas means that each class is fresh and one gets to know students in a way that otherwise rarely happens.

With various adaptations, the *shared inquiry* method of learning has been successfully used by two of the authors, in a range of settings, to teach Japanese students English as a foreign language. The most obvious arenas are conversation or oral communication classes and reading classes, but individual stories and some elements of the approach can also be employed in culture courses or for variety in more traditional language classes as well. Difficulties presented by large or lengthy classes and a wide range of language abilities can be surmounted by having students work in pairs or small groups to prepare for discussion, by using art or drama activities, and by providing supervised opportunities for multiple readings, student-to-student interaction, and individual reflection. Extending work on a story over three or more class sessions is recommended and allows for the incorporation of more direct instruction via mini-lessons on grammar, pronunciation, or culture.

Choosing appropriate high-quality literature is the first priority. The literature used for *shared inquiry* must be discussible. It must be rich enough in ideas and language to sustain in-depth exploration; it must be able to support multiple interpretations; and the problems to be explored, while they should be age-appropriate for the students, must be of interest to the teacher as well. According to Krashen (1982), a good literature program deals with topics and themes of universal and local interest that encourage students to think about basic ethical and metaphysical questions. Some poetry selections and many folk and fairy tales from around the world meet these criteria while providing foreign language learners with texts that are challenging but not overwhelming. "The Ugly Duckling," for example, engages readers with issues of identity and the impact of bullying on the individual. The Ethiopian tale "Fire on the Mountain" explores the inner discipline and social support needed to overcome external obstacles as well as what it means to be true to one's word. Such issues call forth students' best efforts at genuine communication.

Careful preparation by the teacher/discussion leader is the next step. The process of reading a work carefully several times, making notes, and writing interpretive questions familiarizes the leader with the text and prepares him or her to respond with more questions as students develop their own ideas. Working together if possible, leaders can help each other see new ways of interpreting the text that can be formulated into questions. For example, in the story "Jack and the Beanstalk," did Jack succeed mainly because of luck and magic or mainly because of his own abilities? Grouping related interpretive questions together into a basic question (luck and magic, or abilities?) and more detailed supporting questions (Why does the ogre's wife help Jack two times?) can help sustain a longer, more in-depth discussion. Once students have come to their own interpretations in discussion, the leader may want to raise evaluative issues that ask students to use their own experience to agree or disagree with the author. Evaluative questions can lead to further discussion or form the basis of post-discussion writing. (For a detailed explanations of the leader's preparation for discussion and the distinctions between factual, interpretive, and evaluative questions, see Great Books Foundation, 1993.) Finally, planning the full sequence of activities to guide students through the reading process, as well as any distinct mini-lessons that might be done in conjunction with this story, prepares the leader to maintain a focus on students' responses during class.

The leader's planning is balanced by the spontaneity inherent in *shared inquiry* discussion. Remaining in the role of inquirer—helping students learn to help themselves rather than feeding them words and ideas—may be particularly difficult for verbal L1 Western teachers working with Japanese L2 learners. Nevertheless, once students begin to give answers to the opening question, the leader's most important task is to listen carefully and turn personal reactions into follow-up questions that will help students develop initial responses into more comprehensive interpretations. If a response is unclear, asking, "What do you mean by that?" or "Could you explain that further?" gives the student an opportunity to develop variety in expression and to clarify his or her own thoughts. If the leader understands what the student is saying, he or she should ask, "What in the story suggested that idea?" Having students return frequently to the text to cite and examine passages develops critical thinking skills and improves reading comprehension. And using questions to encourage students to listen and respond to one another's ideas and to weigh different possible interpretations is an essential part of the collaboration implied in the term *shared inquiry*. Although Japanese students rarely engage in direct disagreement, over time teachers can help students work together to provide multiple sources of evidence for an idea, see subtle variations in answers, and even gain the confidence to express opinions different from those of their classmates. None of this activity can be scripted in advance.

An open mind, patience, and realistic expectations will help teachers work toward and recognize the signs of progress in any group. Obviously, not all classes or students will develop at the same rate. And many students will read and comprehend English language texts with a higher vocabulary level than they will be able to use in oral discussion. Still, *shared inquiry* learning offers natural opportunities for ongoing assessment. Students gain confidence when they have time to write down their answers before discussion, and informally collecting and reviewing this work facilitates the tracking of student growth. Similarly, making notes on seating charts during discussion and other activities not only flags words or ideas for further exploration, it also enables the leader to record the number of times students speak. Over time, teachers will see students move from giving short simple answers, to explaining and supporting their answers with evidence, to responding directly to the ideas offered by other students.

Providing language learning experiences that require this level of critical thinking and verbal interaction—between students and rich texts from different cultures, between teachers and students, and among students themselves—is a challenging but rewarding educational experience. For foreign language teachers looking for ways to engage students in authentic communication activities and prepare them to participate with confidence in a diverse global society, the *shared inquiry* method offers possibilities for developing students' reading, thinking, and communication skills through discussion of outstanding literature in ways that respect cultural and individual differences while helping us all to cross new borders.

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# Story Grammar: A Reading and Discussion Strategy

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Reading fiction is more difficult for EFL students than reading expository writing. Primarily, this is because there is greater potential complexity in fiction in the areas of organization and grammatical structure (Gadjusek, 1988). Accordingly, there is little benefit in the use of reader strategies for non-fiction of scanning for details, skimming paragraphs to find the main idea and using the contextual clues supplied by transitional phrases, and the use of background knowledge about a subject, or knowledge of distinct genres such as comparison and contrast passages, persuasive writing, and newspaper articles.

However, a reading strategy which has emerged for use with fiction is story grammar. The idea of a story grammar is derived from work in cognitive psychology and anthropology which suggests that stories are told using a common grammar of the elements of character, conflict, incidents, and the resolution of a conflict. In summarizing the research studies of its use in L1, Dimino, Taylor and Gersten (1995) note its effectiveness with weak readers.

Story grammar can also provide a focus for the discussion of a story in a student-led group. Students can read and then discuss stories with the goal of understanding how the story grammar terms are used.

The terms are general enough to be applied to most stories and can provide students with a common language for discussion. In addition, there is considerable research support for this type of task-based conversation as a method of language learning (Ellis, 1982; Long, 1981).

## A Story Grammar Strategy

A variety of story grammars have been proposed. The following one is based on literary terms adapted from Beckson and Ganz (1987). To begin with, the teacher needs to explain the strategy and model its use. The students need to learn the terms thoroughly before they can begin to practise using it and successfully apply it. This means learning the definitions of the terms and the differences between them (See Fig. 1).

The terms can be taught through numerous types of classroom activities using a combination of language skills and information gap activities where students need to communicate information to each other. Some literary terms are more easily taught than others. For example, a teacher might use a scene from a video to establish the terms of "setting." By using a video, everyone will have had the same visual experience and it is easier to talk about it and review it.

There are many possibilities. For example, a teacher might use a scene from a video such as *The Last Emperor* (Thomas, Bertolucci, 1987) to show a setting. This video deals with the story of Pu Yi, the last emperor of the Qing Dynasty in China. Students could be shown the elaborate ceremony in the Forbidden City where the three-year old Pu Yi is proclaimed emperor of China, or a later scene showing a crowd of young Communists carrying red banners during the Cultural Revolution and then asked the time and location of the scene. A similar type of approach using video might help explain the term "conflict."

Complex literary terms are another matter. A teacher might introduce "point of view" in class through a jigsaw reading where the teacher divides the students into different groups and gives each group a different passage or "point of view." ) See Fig. 2 Once the groups have correctly identified their respective passages, the teacher breaks these groups into new ones where each member has a different passage. The members of these new groups try to guess one another's "point of view."

After all the groups have finished, they work together in writing from the"point of view" suggested by a character in a scene

1. Setting: the time and location of a story, or novel
2. Point of a story is told from one point of view:
    a) first person; sympathetic, unreliable,
    b) third person; factual, little insight into characters' minds and emotions
    c) omniscient, insight into the minds and emotions of many characters
3. Conflict: a character is in conflict with himself, or herself, or with someone else:
    a) man or woman versus man or woman
    b) man or woman versus himself or herself
    c) man or woman versus his or her environment
4. Symbol: a thing which stands for another thing, a person, or idea
5. Irony: whenever something happens in a story that is unexpected and yet appropriate
6. Theme: the main idea, a moral or a lesson

**Figure 1 Literary Terms**

**I. I could hardly believe it! There was ice ahead of my car. I stepped on the brake to avoid hitting it. But it was too late — My car drove over the ice and skidded off the road. My life passed before me. What a waste! To end it all so miserably this way. There was a crash and then everything went black.**

**II. The white Toyota sedan hit the ice on the road and spun out of control. It skidded off the road and hit a fence. It stopped there. The engine was smoking and there was no sign of life.**

**III. The man driving the white Toyota sedan hit the ice before he could even see it. The car went into a skid the man couldn't control. To his horror, his vehicle left the road and crashed into a fence. It lay there and the engine was smoking.**

**Figure 2 Points of View**

from a video. The previousactivity provides the groups with some models for their writing. In terms of avideo, the wedding scene in *The Father of the Bride* (Gallin, S., Meyers, N.,Burns, C., Rosenman, H. & Shyer, C., 1991) might be useful here. Theteacher assigns a different "point of view" to each group in the class as well asasking some groups to write first person narratives from the perspective ofdifferent characters such as the bride, her father, and the groom. After thegroups have finished their narratives, the teacher then breaks these groups up and the students return to their initial groups.

Each student reads the "point of view" created in his previous group. The other members of the group attempt to guess it, and if it is a first-person narrative, to determine which character has the perspective. Alternately,instead of using a video, the teacher could show the students a photograph or drawing where the subjects in it are used to illustrate the term "point ofview."

Next, descriptive writing helps students to better understandsymbols. The teacher brings in some objects and then leads the class inbrainstorming the various ways the objects could be categorized. Then theteacher asks each student to choose one object and to write a description of howthe object could symbolize an idea, a quality, or a feeling. Afterward, in groups, students interpret their symbols to each other: for example, a pen couldrepresent an idea, a message, literature, or even a maxim like "the pen ismightier than the sword"; a padlock could represent a secret; a crime, the mysteriousunconscious, or deductive logic.

Teaching students a more complex term such as irony might involve them in brainstorming and writing ironic twists. The teacher gives the series ofprompts (a), (b), (c) on a handout or on the blackboard. The students suggest the ironic twists to the prompts. (see Fig. 3)

The second phase of teaching the Story Grammar strategy begins. The next step is to guide the students through a use of the strategy with otherexamples. In addition, the teacher also comments on student use of the strategyand students compare their

1. After waiting all morning to eat his lunch, he opened it and...
   ex. an alligator jumped out and ate him.
2. The thief tried to steal the old lady's purse, but...
   ex. she was a karate master, and she beat him up.
3. Poor Alex studied all night for his Chemistry test, only...
   ex. the test the next day was in Mathematics.

**Figure 3 Prompts for Ironic Twists**

efforts with one another (Anthony & Raphael, 1989;Shih, 1992).

The teacher prepares for the second phase, the guided practice, bychoosing a very short story which can be read quickly in class. The goal of theactivity is not in reading details and a rich narrative so much as in applying thestory grammar, in this case, one based on literary terms. Collie and Slater (1987) cite a very compact surrealist tale by Alasdair Gray which would be effective:

In *The Star'* a young boy sees a 'star' drop from the sky into the backyard of his house. He finds it and treasures it, secretly. When he takes it to school, however, he is caught looking at it by his teacher. Rather than relinquish it, he swallows it and becomes a star, too. (p.201).

The teacher asks the students to read the story, and then label the parts of the story where the literary terms appear and note the reason for their opinions. The students then check their work in pairs to see how effectively they were able to analyze the story. Next, the teacher puts the students into small groups to discuss their choices further. During this time, the students will be altering their ideas through contact with other students and enlarging their understanding of both the terms and the story. At this point, the teacher asks the different groups in the class to report on their findings and to offer an explanation for their choices.

More explanation of the strategy will be necessary. For one thing, if in discussing the setting of *The Star*, none of the students mention how the appearance of dates, and names, or in this case, references to a contemporary lifestyle indicate setting, then the teacher should do so. The boy in the story has a backyard to his house, and he attends school, which likely places him in a developed country in the 20th century.

In the same way, a consideration of a few words or phrases in the text can be used to explain each of the literary terms. When students discuss more abstract literary terms such as "symbol," "irony," or "theme," then the teacher should make it clear that multiple explanations are possible, provided that students explain their reasoning and support it through reference to the story. As a symbol, the "star" in Alasdair's story might represent "hope" or "spiritual" attainment. After all, it is in the sky and it is bright enough to be seen by the boy. But one could also argue that the star represents "radioactivity" or "evil" and in the first case, this is how the boy turns into a "star" himself; he becomes "radioactive." In the case of "evil," the argument could be made that the star represents dishonesty and evasion, a fall from a state of grace whereby in concealing the star from his teacher, the boy is in effect telling a lie, and therefore becoming evil himself.

These possible explanations of the theme should all be listed upon the blackboard and given serious discussion in the class to indicate to the students that different explanations are acceptable, even admirable.

At this point, the teacher has to assess how many more stories would be necessary for the students to attempt as guided practice before they could use the story grammar strategy independently, and furthermore which kinds of genres of stories, for example, realistic ones, fables, science fiction, and so on might be introduced in the class.

Once the students in the class understand all the literary terms and can apply them reasonably effectively to stories, they are ready for independent study in small groups. Teaching the students the literary terms and then providing them with guided practice is best done over a series of classes on literary terms. In the first class, the teacher should explain the literary terms to the students and demonstrate their use. The students' homework should be to review the terms, perhaps for a short matching quiz in the following class to ensure that students can at least distinguish between terms. Subsequent classwork should involve guided practice and then independent work and self-evaluation.

After the students understand the strategy, the teacher might use it as the basis for students doing oral book reports on novels. The story grammar terms lend themselves well to summarizing material and would help students explain their books to one another. If the class is reading the same stories or novel, then the teacher could set up reading study groups. On a rotating basis, each student could be required to serve as a discussion leader with the responsibility of encouraging all his or her group members to participate in the discussion.

These small groups are also effective in teaching other language skills besides reading. Tasks in which students in a group discussion have unique information to contribute are tasks that encourage participation and thus facilitate second language acquisition (Long, 1981; Nunan, 1991).

Porter (1986) found that learners produce more talk with other learners than with native-speaking partners and that learners do not learn one another's errors. In these ways, using a story grammar reading strategy aids language learning through improving reading comprehension and speaking and listening skills.

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# The Use of Japanese Literature in Reading Classes

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### Background

In reading classes, contextual knowledge has been considered very important in addition to the knowledge of the language. Reading is a very active brain process which uses both written textual information and the knowledge of the context (Silberstein, 1994; Smith, 1978). Using their knowledge of the context and language, readers look at the text and take samples to make predictions; they then check if their predictions are correct, and then confirm them (Coady, 1979). When readers predict, they can use the knowledge they already have, and that knowledge can help comprehension (Silberstein, 1994). Therefore, the use of background knowledge can compensate for linguistic weaknesses (Coady, 1979).

We usually have some experience of being able to read faster, and understand more easily, when we read something on a topic with which we are familiar. On the other hand, when we read something unfamiliar, our reading speed naturally slows down, and sometimes we find it difficult to comprehend. For example, I know a Japanese student at a rather low English level who had studied at a university in the U.S. In a Japanese novels class she took, she had to read a number of famous works translated into English. Although she did not have time to check unfamiliar words in a dictionary, she could guess and understand them fairly well as she had read or heard of the stories while in Japan. Japanese students often have difficulty guessing the meaning of words they do not know, and want to check those words in a dictionary. Paying attention to each word not only slows down the reading speed, but can also deter comprehension as the reader reads too slowly to remember what was written before. Slow reading also impedes comprehension because it can overload visual system and short-term memory (Smith, 1978).

Aware of these research findings and experience, I began teaching an English reading course based on Japanese literature with the expectation that the familiar contexts would assist students in guessing the meaning of words and help them to understand the story. When they understand, they can be interested in the story and thus read more, and as a result, they can improve their reading skills. People can improve their reading by reading (Smith, 1978).

## Course Organization

A particular work in Japanese literature translated into English was chosen for use in a one-semester class, and divided into 10 or 11 sections. Usually each section has from 10 to 15 pages depending on the length of the book, and I make about 5 study questions for each part. Different types of questions are included, so that students can practice reading skills such as skimming, scanning, predicting, summarizing, and responding personally. Students are supposed to write their answers in their notebooks of which they prepare two, alternating every week. This means that they have one week to read the assigned pages and answer the questions in one of the notebooks, and the teacher has one week to read students' answers in the other notebook. Then, in class, we have a discussion in English based on those study questions.

In each class, after returning the notebooks to students, we review the story by summarizing orally to remember the part we are going to cover in that class, and we then have the discussion. This works very well in a class of up to 15 students. It is usually helpful to divide students into pairs or small groups before starting discussion. This way, students do not usually feel nervous about speaking up in class because of the confidence and security gained while talking to their partners or group members.

When we finish the book at the end of the course, we watch a movie adapted from the story. After the movie, we discuss our understanding of the differences between the book and the movie, which can lead to quite an interesting discussion. In class, students are encouraged to use English unless it is too difficult to express their ideas, in which case we use Japanese, but this usually happens only three times at most in a semester.

In addition to the Japanese literature book used in class, students are assigned a book report. Each student chooses one book about Japan written in English, and writes a 3-page report. The book can be on anything related to Japan such as Japanese history, people, culture, customs, as well as literature. Based on the written report, they give an oral presentation in class.

## Advantages and Disadvantages

Class size can be one of the important factors for this type of course. It works best with a small class of around 12; very small groups of 2 to 5 students can be boring as students tend to agree with each other quite often. When teachers have bigger reading classes of 50, or even 100, it takes too long to check the written answers. If, on the other hand, students can choose from a number of questions, get into groups according to those questions, and report back to the class, it could be possible to conduct this type of course (Willis, 1993). For a mixed linguistic level class, the teacher can write different level questions, and students can choose the questions (Grellet, 1981); then, follow the same procedure as above.

Study questions can help students to comprehend and practice reading skills. The reason why I started to give such questions at first was to make sure the students cover the reading assignments, but I have realized that there are some other advantages. First of all, questions can make the students predict and look for answers. Readers ask specific questions, and comprehension involves finding the answers to those questions (Smith, 1978). Secondly, by checking the answers students have written, the teacher can check for comprehension, and if there are some misunderstandings, they can be clarified by discussing them in class. In addition, students who have good writing skills can demonstrate understanding even if they are not very fluent. Some shy students can also receive credit for their written work, and it is possible that they will speak up in class if given a lot of encouragement written by the teacher in their notebooks. Finally, the study questions can become an impetus for discussion. Japanese students often feel more secure when they have something written in front of them before they speak up.

The length of assignments can be problematic. Students often complain that reading 15 pages is too long. Even if I tell them that they do not have to check the meaning of every single unknown word, they usually want to find out the meaning in a bilingual dictionary. Some students make a vocabulary list in Japanese. The use of a bilingual dictionary can hinder the comprehension, and students can collect the words but lose the meaning (Coady, 1979). Guessing from context is very important, but students are afraid of guessing incorrectly. Japanese students have often been trained to translate word by word accurately. If longer passages are assigned to read, it may prevent them from checking all the words they do not know even though it might mean they complain more.

The discussion can help students to understand the meaning, and as mentioned above, it can set them on the right track when they misunderstand. Interactions among students can also be quite beneficial. Usually, the students need a lot of guidance and encouragement from the teacher to carry on a discussion, but sometimes, they can keep going by themselves very well. When the teacher becomes one of the participants in the discussion and only gives help when absolutely necessary, it is ideal. My personal aim is to have the students feel free to agree and disagree with each other during discussions. In my experience, a few years ago, one of the most shy students spoke up against another student's idea by saying, "Well, I do not think so." It was toward the end of the course, and she had not spoken up except for a few words before then, even with much encouragement, so it was a wonderful accomplishment.

The knowledge of Japanese culture can help students to comprehend the story, although they sometimes need a lot of help in connecting their knowledge to the story. It is also quite difficult for students to express their knowledge when supporting their opinions and ideas. When students understand the content, they can feel interested in it. It can be hard to understand the implications and symbolism, but when they understand, they feel amused and excited. In class, when some of them understand and others do not, the former students usually start to explain to the latter. Toward the end of the course, when there are about one or two more sections left, many of them go ahead and finish the book. The fact that they can not wait to receive the study questions on those parts reflects their interest in the story.

## Comments from Students

According to the questionnaires I have been giving after each course, many students have responded that they feel very satisfied when they speak during discussion time. Some of them mention the reason is because of the class size. Another reason is that they have the study questions which they can use and thus feel secure in discussion. To the question of whether they are satisfied with what they did in class, about 95% of the students responded "yes," 5%, "I do not know," and none of them

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chose "no." In addition, they commented that they were able to understand the story better because of the discussion in class.

Students' feedback indicates a sense of accomplishment after completing the course. They say that they would like to praise themselves for their hard work. Furthermore, they feel very satisfied after finishing two books written in English in one semester, although all of them have expressed that it was very difficult.

Some of them have mentioned that they did not know Japanese literature could be so interesting until they took this class. They say that a story can have a lot of symbolism and implications, and it is very interesting to understand them although it can be very difficult. There was one interesting comment from several students who must have compared the story in English and Japanese. They realized the difference between the expressions in the two languages, and they mentioned that in English the phrases and words tended to be clearer and simpler, while Japanese expressions were indirect and vague.

Students also expressed the difficulties of the course. They said that it took too long to complete the assignments. They commented that the vocabulary and grammar were quite difficult, and that it was hard to guess the meaning from the context. As mentioned earlier, this problem needs to be solved, so that the students can practice prediction, checking, and confirmation which are essential parts of reading skills.

## Book Choice

It is important to choose a book students can be interested in. If the material chosen is meaningful and enjoyable for the students, reading can be more beneficial (Collie and Slater, 1987). There are several works which my students have chosen for their book reports and mentioned as being very interesting (see Appendix 1). Some of them have prepared very good visual aids such as pictures and charts, to explain the story for their presentations in class.

I also asked two publishers who distribute Japanese literature books translated into English about the books that have been used in classes recently. Kodansha International responded that quite a variety of books are being used, but the works by female authors such as Sawako Ariyoshi and Fumiko Enchi are especially popular (see Appendix 2). Charles E. Tuttle Company also gave some titles (see Appendix 2).

## Conclusion

It might be rather awkward for Japanese students to read some works of Japanese literature in English, but because they know about Japan and Japanese people, they already know or can guess how some characters in the story feel, and they become more interested in the story. When they are interested, they may want to read more, and as a result, their reading skills will improve. It is also very important that the teacher is interested in the material she or he is using in a reading class. The lack of interest can easily influence the students in class (Donan, 1996). The teacher's excitement can transfer to the students; it is hoped that they will become excited, and thus more involved in the story and discussion.

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# FL Reading and Multi-media: Psycholinguistic Views

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## Overall summary

This colloquium focuses on the roles of phonological coding in silent reading and examines how the phonological processor, together with syntactic and semantic processors, provide clues to theorize on the relationship between reading and speech, and leads to the realization of the multi-media nature of human linguistic processing.

First, the relevance and role of phonology is assessed by Syuhei Kadota through (a) surveying past studies on the cognitive role of phonological coding, and (b) presenting a tentative, multi-dimensional model of silent reading, an interactive model stressing the relationship between analytic processors and holistic image processors.

Concerning the issue of processing units in reading, Masao Tada summarizes the previous findings on the effects of recognition of processing units, and reports that preorganized chunked texts significantly facilitate reading comprehension for both proficient and non-proficient learners in Japan.

It is assumed that there are some interesting characteristics of reading behaviors for Japanese college students. Yuko Shimizu reports that her classroom research promotes effective reading, and concludes that the instruction positively influenced the learners' comprehension abilities in listening, as well as their reading efficiency and strategies.

It is claimed that phonology plays a part in incorporating both reading and listening in a unified framework and thus in justifying the multi-media presentation of phonological and textual materials in EFL learning. Shinji Kimura reports on his own work on the effect of such presentation on comprehension and learning, and suggests the possible implications of the psycholinguistic research to future CAI systems for EFL reading.

## Syuhei Kadota: How phonology contributes to silent reading: A theoretical framework

### *Introduction*

This report is an attempt to assess the hypothetical roles of phonology in EFL reading comprehension and then to indicate one possible explanation as to the psycholinguistic overlap between reading and listening in EFL.

### *Phonological coding and silent reading*

A review of past studies analyzing EMG amplitudes, letter-search data, the effect of articulatory suppression, brain-imaging during silent reading, etc. unanimously reveals that phonological coding, which ranges from physiologically detectable inner articulation to implicit auditory image, is activated in the processing of English and Japanese sentences (See Kadota, 1987 for the survey of discourse-level studies).

Concerning the role of phonology in silent reading, two models are so far proposed: (a) a lexical access model (i.e. phonological representation must be fully established before semantic processing takes place) and (b) an integrative model (i.e. phonology plays a part in segmenting input words into processing chunks and is thus concerned with the phonological loop system in Baddeley's WM [working memory]).

In a reaction-time experiment on word-level recognition, Kadota (forthcoming) empirically shows that suppressing phonological awareness does impair access to phonological representation of the words, but the access to word meaning as well as its lexical category is in principle possible without phonological activation.

However, my own earlier works (e.g. Kadota, 1982) suggest that EFL readers, when given an articulatory suppression task while reading a portion of English text, exhibit lower comprehension measured by a post-reading Q & A test. The result indicates that the phonology can be activated in processing written English discourse. Thus the findings, in general, seem to provide positive evidence for the above integrative model of phonological coding.

### A tentative role of phonology in formulating comprehension units

It is said that a visual input which is briefly held as an unprocessed iconic sensory pattern needs to be further transmitted to WM, in which the input is assumed to be chunked into some comprehension units. According to Kadota and Tada (1992), there is ample evidence which proves that a constituent, such as a phrase, roughly corresponds to the units of processing in reading English text. In formulating a phrase-like chunk, readers are supposed to employ a variety of information resources (i.e. syntactic, semantic, phonological). Among several phonological variables, the prosodic configuration of a sentence seems to be a highly plausible resource to be employed by many readers in constructing comprehension chunks. In fact, Kadota (1987) conducted a preliminary study as to the effect of irregular rhythmic beats, compared with isochronous beats, on reading comprehension, and suggests that the resultant comprehension loss may be due to the supposed incompatibility between the irregular beats given and the rhythmic awareness possibly aroused by phonological coding and innate human motor rhythm. Thus it seems possible to argue that phonological coding in silent reading does provide readers with prosodic awareness of a printed sentence, and that such clues as a sentence rhythmic pattern may play a role in segmenting words into phrase-like chunks.

### *Concluding remarks: The possible relationship between reading and listening*

Now it is possible to offer two tentative explanations of the relationship between reading and listening. One explanation is a commonly held view: there is much psycholinguistic parallelism between the higher-order stages of the two skills; in the central WM stage, both listening and reading involve a highly active prediction-testing task in which people process linguistic input by constructing chunks and by activating various information resources like formal and content schemata. The other explanation is the view suggested in this report: listening is, as it were, incorporated in the process of reading as its intrinsic component through phonological coding; there might be a common phonological basis which directly unites the two comprehension skills.

## Masao Tada: The effects of text preorganization on college level Japanese EFL learners' reading comprehension and speed

Findings from existing studies with regard to the effects of text preorganization (chunked text) on reading comprehension show that text preorganization might not always facilitate reading comprehension. The report focuses on the effects of pre-organized (i. e. chunked) texts on reading comprehension and speed for university/college English learners in Japan. The results from a series of experimental studies conducted by the researcher are compared in order to clarify (a) whether preorganized texts (phrase-cued texts) affect the language learners' processing of written texts, and (b) whether training using preorganized text in computer and traditional modes affects reading comprehension. More specifically, the experiments examined the following issues: (a) the effects of different styles of presentation of texts (chunk by chunk vs. word by word) by means of computer on reading comprehension; (b) the effects of different styles of presentation of texts (chunked vs. line by line) by means of computer on free recall; (c) the effects of different styles of pre-organization of paper text (chunked vs. traditional) on reading comprehension for good readers and poor readers ; (d) the effects of different styles of pre-organization of paper text (chunked vs. traditional) on maze task score; and (e) the effects of computer assisted speed reading training on reading speed and comprehension.

The results show that the answer to the question of whether presenting texts in chunks facilitates reading comprehension and rate is both yes and no: it was shown that for computer presentation, the chunk by chunk presentation has an advantage over the word by word presentation and the line by line presentation when the comprehension was measured by recall. However, in the paper presentation there was no advantageous effect found for text manipulation for either high- or low-proficiency learners. Moreover, the results from the maze task score shows that there was a favorable effect for chunked format text.

There are some possible explanations for the statistically significant effect of text pre-organization under computer presentation conditions as opposed to the lack of such effect under paper presentation conditions. It is hypothesized that when the passage was presented on a computer screen, the readers were more able to perceive and process chunks than when it was presented on a sheet of paper, as these chunks were presented one by one as time passed. The cues on paper, on the other hand, were less evident to the readers, and it is not certain that readers' eye fixations were regulated by such chunks. It may be that computer presentation forced eye fixation on each chunk more effectively than the paper presentation did.

The results that there was a favorable effect for chunked format text on the maze task score looks contradictory in relation to the other results. However, the dependent variable in the maze task experiment is a measure for processing the word class form and comprehension at the same time, while the dependent variable for the other experiments were a measure for reading comprehension. Thus, differences in measurement are considered to be a possible source of different results.

The answer to the question of whether the training using preorganized text facilitates reading comprehension is positive. An eight week computer assisted speed reading training period had a statistically significant effect on reading rate and comprehension scores after training. This important finding offers empirical support for the use of computer as a pedagogical tool for training in English reading. The possible explanation for the advantageous effects of computer training is as follows: in the computer presentation used in the present study, the learners eventually got used to the speed of presentation of the texts. Chunk by chunk presentation of the texts may have matched the processing unit size which the learners needed to develop in order to comprehend the texts more efficiently than they had been before the training.

It might be possible that the processing units for reading are similar to the processing units for listening for learners at certain levels of proficiency. This is related to another area of interest: that is, the transfer of reading training using chunked text to listening comprehension.

In summary, the results suggest that computer presentation of preorganized text has a positive effect on reading comprehension and rate, and training using computer facilitates development of reading ability.

## Yuko Shimizu: The effects of a reading instruction exercise on comprehension strategies and language abilities of college students in Japan

*Introduction*

Although findings in contemporary research in L2 reading have been integrated into practice in English classrooms in Japanese colleges, favorable results have not necessarily been observed in learners' performance. Carrell (1988) points out that some of the causes rendering reading difficult come from a misconception of reading and lack of linguistic and reading skills. As one way to overcome those disadvantages, a speed reading exercise was conducted in a regular classroom situation and it was concluded that the exercise positively influenced the learners' listening and reading abilities, reading speed, and attitudes towards reading in English.

*The study*

The purpose of the study was to examine the effects of a speed reading exercise given to Japanese students at the college level. The study attempted to examine the following aspects:

1. attitudinal changes toward reading after the exercise
2. the effects on learners' performance in the following subtests: grammar, reading, and listening
3. the relationship of reading speed and performance on the subtests.

Subjects in this study were 137 first-year college students. Sixty-nine students were assigned as a control group and sixty-eight as an experimental group.

The students in the experimental group were encouraged to read an approximately 700-word passage rapidly. They were required to record the time they took to read the passage as soon as they finished the first reading. Immediately after that, they were asked to answer ten true-false type comprehension questions without referring back to the passage. The exercise was given 15 times; once a week, with a 2-month summer recess.

The results were based on the following data:

1. English subtests: grammar, multiple-choice type cloze test, and the JACET Intermediate Listening Comprehension Test.

The same subtests were used for both pre- and post tests:

2. Words Per Minute measured in April and January.
3. Questionnaire written in Japanese (9 items) concerning general attitudes towards reading in English.

*Results*

1. Positive attitudinal changes regarding reading

A strong tendency of translation into Japanese, slow reading for understanding, and excessive use of a dictionary were significantly weakened. Also, students began to take more advantage of guessing, previewing, scanning and text organization.

2. Positive effects on English proficiency

Scores in reading and listening tests were significantly increased after the exercise, especially for listening. No significant gain, however, was observed in the grammar test.

3. Improvement in reading speed and performance on the subtests

Fast readers* improved their reading speed dramatically from 100 to 122 WPM. They began to use previewing and scanning more actively, which quickened their reading speed. Slow readers, on the other hand, did not show a significantly improved performance in their WPM. They still showed a strong attachment to translation into Japanese. However, their cloze scores were significantly higher at the level of .01.

The difference between the fast and slow readers was not significant in reading and listening performance. This indicated that reading speed was not a reliable indicator. However, grammar scores on the post test significantly distinguished the two readers at a level of .0053. Lack of grammatical competence was a linguistic disadvantage and prevented the slow readers from increasing their reading speed.

* Using the WPM score measured at the end of the exercise, the top 25 students were assigned as the fast readers and the bottom 25 as the slow readers.

*Conclusion*

The present study has attempted to examine the effects of a speed reading exercise on students' attitudes toward reading and their English ability. As a by-product of the exercise, the students were given the benefits of becoming active readers, utilizing reading skills. Also, the exercise contributed to improving learners' reading and listening abilities and reading speed. However, the slow readers did not show an increase in their WPM. They still depended on translation and did not utilize as many reading skills as the fast readers, which prevented them from increasing their reading speed. One element which distinguished the slow and fast readers in the present study was their grammatical ability. Grammar competence is possibly working as a latent ability, which facilitates the acquisition of reading skills and the increase of reading speed.

## Shinji Kimura: Multimedia: a psycholinguistic view

Although a great deal of research has been conducted to investigate the effect of integrated presentation of information (textual, phonological, pictorial and graphical) on comprehension (e.g. Baransford & Johnson, 1972; Hirose & Kamei, 1993; Levie & Lentz, 1982; Omaggio 1979), no research has ever clarified the role of phonological input in second language reading comprehension. Reading while listening, which has been reported to be effective for problematic learners in the first language classroom (Carbo 1978; Chomsky 1976; Gamby 1983), is also a popular activity in both English as a foreign/second language classrooms, and computer assisted multimedia teaching materials. The interesting fact is that no one knows if such integrated input is potentially facilitative, or at least harmless, for second language reading comprehension.

This study investigated the effect of integrated input, textual and phonological, on foreign language reading comprehension by comparing reading comprehension test scores obtained under two conditions, one tested while listening to recorded passages and the other without such an aid. In addition to the tests, the subjects were asked about which condition they preferred to read under.

A negative effect of listening on reading was hypothesized, with the following reasons:

1. The part of a passage which a reader wants to read does not always correspond with the part they hear from the recorded tape. It probably becomes difficult if the reading speed of the recorded passage is much slower or faster than his/her own desireable reading speed.

2. When the speed of the recorded passage is slow or fast, a reader may give up reading at his/her own pace and try to read the corresponding part of the passage he/she hears. If the recording is slow and the total reading time is limited, he/she is forced to spend more time than he/she needs for reading, and loses time for reveiwing the passage. This results in weaker comprehension.

3. Phonological coding while reading is considered to play a significant role in the comprehension of the passage (Kadota 1987). If the own-coding (which naturally occurs during silent reading) and outside-coding (while listening to recorded passages) mismatch, outside-coding can interfere with comprehension.

A total of 312 Japanese EFL learners at university level participated in three experiments with different reading speed and passage difficulty. Unpaired t-tests revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between listening vs. non-listening, regardless of reading speed and passage difficulty (t=-.381, df=358, p=.704), (t=.492, df=358, p=.623), (t=-.285, df=162, p=.776), (t=.291, df=98, p=.772), (t=.571, df=158, p=.569).

*X*2 tests revealed that the more difficult the passages were, or the faster the reading speed was, the more subjects preferred the condition with phonological input (*X*2=4.66, df=2, p=.097). The results of the study suggest that listening while reading neither harms nor facilitates reading activities.

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# Vocabulary Building with Student-Selected Words

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## Introduction

Learners at the intermediate level and above normally come to the classroom with varied sets of vocabulary. This is due not only to variation in previous instruction and exposure, but also to individual interests and needs. This situation creates some practical problems for explicit vocabulary teaching, as it can be difficult to identify words that will be both new and useful to most students. What suits one will not be of use to another; this contributes to problems of motivation. The easiest solution is for each student to select words that he feels will be of use to him, from a context that fits his own interests and needs. However, this in turn creates difficulties in the classroom. How can the teacher ensure that the vocabulary is learned, and give credit for it, without being required to create a different test for each student? Will the students pay attention to more than the translated meaning of the word? Will they bother to search for the additional information required in order to learn a word well enough to use it? Will they encounter it often enough to embed it in memory without it being deliberately recycled in class?

The amount of exposure required to learn a word seems likely to vary according to factors such as its visual evocativeness, learner interest, and its frequency or saliency (Brown, 1993, found that salience from focus seemed to be less of a factor than salience from what the learners have experienced as a gap in their knowledge). One method of increasing salience is allowing students to choose the words they wish to learn, which Swaffer found also improved the rate of retention (1988, cited in Oxford and Scarcella, 1994).

Brown and Payne (1994, cited in Hatch and Brown, 1995) have identified five essential steps in vocabulary learning, the first of which is *encountering the word*. This may, of course, occur either inside or outside of the classroom, and the number of new words encountered may vary according to whether a student seeks out opportunities for contact with the language, particularly when it is being learned as a foreign language.

The second of Brown and Payne's five steps, *getting the word form*, is one that seems to cause problems for L2 students in many ways. One is that it takes longer to identify or decipher words, as is shown by the longer visual fixation time on each word displayed by second language learners (see Haynes, 1993). Another difficulty experienced is faulty deciphering of words due to graphemic or phonemic mismatches; these misunderstandings tend to persist even if there is a conflict with the context (Haynes, 1993). The spelling and pronunciation of the word are items that must be established before progressing to the next step.

*Getting the word meaning* is likely to require an accumulation of information, which may or may not include dictionary-type definitions. Studies have shown that vocabulary instruction that simply provides a definition has little if no effect on reading comprehension (see Nagy and Herman, 1987). Classroom instruction would have to be rich indeed to supply enough information to take this step all at once. Repetition and revision would seem to be required, as the amount of input increases and guesses can be rejected or confirmed.

Although Brown and Payne present the five steps consecutively, it would seem that *consolidating word form and meaning in memory* must be intertwined with the steps above and below; as information is added through finding additional meanings, or as restrictions to its use are found, alterations will take place in the lexical entry in the memory. Lexical entries, while still under investigation, are presumed to contain (or have links to) information on form, meaning, syntax, associations, collocations, semantic categories, register — in short, all of the information required to interpret and use the word. Oxford identifies major memory strategies as: creating mental linkages; applying images and sounds; reviewing well; and employing action. These are applied for storage in memory, but also play a role in retrieval (1990, p. 58).

Oxford and Scarcella (1994) divide vocabulary learning activities into decontextualized (word lists, flashcards, dictionary look-up), partially contextualized (such as visual and aural imagery, the keyword method, physical response, and semantic mapping), and fully contextualized activities. Some of the activities which students can use on their own to aid acquisition include focusing attention on the grammatical form and other words in the family; semantic mapping to help with creating mental linkages; definitions both in L1 and L2 (from a learner's dictionary); example sentences; drawing a picture or series of pictures of the word; and collecting collocations and syntactic information for grammatical use. The keyword method has frequently been reported to be effective (e.g. Brown and Perry, 1991; Ellis and Beaton, 1993).

In *using the word*, feedback from the success (or otherwise) of the word in that situation will most likely be added to the lexical entry. However, failure to reach the final step does not mean that the word has not been learned. Hatch and Brown (1995) point out that words may be available for use but that the learner chooses not to use them, because of awareness of register or associations that the learner does not wish to convey. In addition, active use of the word may not be an objective or requirement in the case of receptive knowledge. While the full complement of information on syntactic restrictions, register, or collocations may not be sufficient for actual use, an understanding of the word in context may still be possible. Crow and Quigley (1985) explored one method utilizing a semantic field approach to help students gain a larger receptive vocabulary for their academic reading needs.

## A vocabulary card & quiz system

The following system was developed as one possible way to assist students in identifying the various aspects of words and making connections. It allows students to select their own vocabulary words and create detailed vocabulary cards focused on them, at the same time that it permits the teacher a means of evaluation.

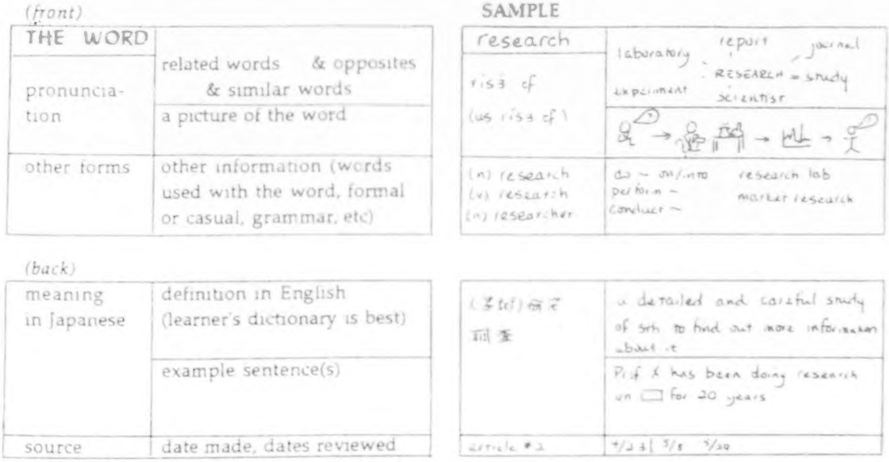
## The cards

Students are required to produce three vocabulary cards a week, in the style shown in Figure 1. The student may choose the words freely, but it is recommended that they be taken from some source besides the dictionary, such as class reading materials, other English classes, or vocabulary related to a hobby or field of study. Items to be filled in on the front of the card are: the target word; its pronunciation; its part of speech and variations of other parts of speech; related words or phrases, to include similar and opposite words if applicable (semantic categories and associations); a picture representing the word; and "other information", which could include common collocations, syntax, notes on register, etc. Items to be filled in on the back of the card are: L1 meaning, L2 definition (from a learner's dictionary, if possible), an example sentence (preferably from the original source), and for management, the date made, dates reviewed, and the source of the word. Students reported spending between 5 and 50 minutes on making a card, with the typical student spending 10-15 minutes per card.

## The quizzes

Pairs of students conduct quizzes, using the sheet shown in Figure 2. They write their words in the table (three new ones and two previous low-scoring words), and exchange the quiz sheet and their cards with their partner. They then take turns quizzing each other on their words within the time given (usually 20-25 minutes). One point is given for each response, so that three points would be obtained if three different related words were given. Partners check answers on the cards, and are permitted to use their own judgement for acceptability. The total score is then written on a sheet submitted to the teacher each week. Typical scores ranged from 12 to 15 points per word. Ideally, the quiz itself

FIGURE 1 Layout of Vocabulary Cards and Sample



(front)

| | |
|---|---|
| THE WORD | |
| pronunciation | related words & opposites<br>& similar words |
| | a picture of the word |
| other forms | other information (words used with the word, formal or casual, grammar, etc) |

SAMPLE

| | |
|---|---|
| research | laboratory<br>report<br>journal<br>RESEARCH = study<br>experiment<br>scientist |
| risɜ tʃ<br>(us risɜ tʃ) | |
| (n) research<br>(v) research<br>(n) researcher | do ~ on/into<br>perform ~<br>conduct ~<br>research lab<br>market research |

(back)

| | |
|---|---|
| meaning in Japanese | definition in English (learner's dictionary is best) |
| | example sentence(s) |
| source | date made, dates reviewed |

| | |
|---|---|
| (名詞)研究<br>調査 | a detailed and careful study of sth to find out more information about it |
| | Prof X has been doing research on ☐ for 20 years |
| article #2 | 4/23 \| 5/8 5/20 |

FIGURE 2 Vocabulary Quiz Sheet

Date: Partner: Total score:

| WORD | spelling | meaning | forms | similar | related | example | used with | score |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | |
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would be conducted in the target language, for example, "What does the word mean?", but most pairs either used shortcuts ("Meaning.") or their L1.

*Possible variations:*

1. When quizzing, the partner randomly chooses a card and reads the English definition of the word. Three points are given for successful identification of the target word. The rest of the quiz continues as usual.
2. Small groups select appropriate words from a class-related source. All members contribute related words. Each member makes cards for some words and photocopies them before the next class. This adds a step, but also adds discussion on the best words to include.
3. With speed quizzes, the student should name, for instance, two related words for as many cards as possible within the time limit (5-10 minutes).

## Evaluation of the system

The card and quiz system was used in three English classes in a Japanese national university, with a total of 113 students, for a period of 10 to 25 weeks. Questionnaires showed that students were generally satisfied with the system, and felt that it was useful for learning new words (Figure 3). Students were asked to rate each item on the card on a 5-point scale for its usefulness to them in learning the target word (Figure 4). It is no surprise that *L1 meaning* is considered most useful, but it is encouraging to see the high ranking given to *related words*, for instance. While it is unclear whether mapping of related words is a new strategy to the students, it seems clear that it is or has become a valued one. Several students commented that this item helped them to become familiar with new words other than the target word. Unfortunately, there is no data available concerning the attitudes of students prior to working with the system.

## Usefulness of Various Items

Although there was general agreement on most items, responses were divided on the *picture*, which the majority of students judged as being of no use, while others found it very useful (very likely a reflection of personal learning styles). Predictably, students who utilized the *other information* section more actively rated it as more useful. Although *L2 definition* is ranked as of

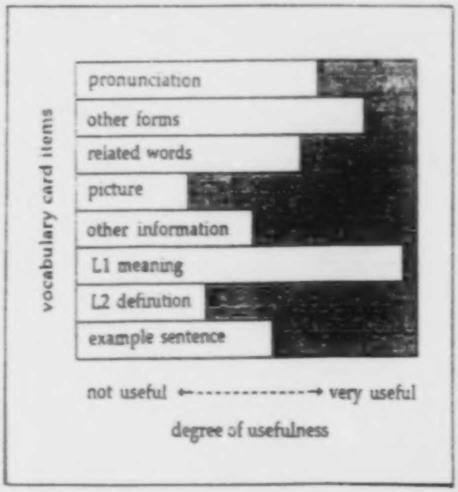
FIGURE 3 Selected Student Comments

*Vocab cardを作り、similarやoppositeの単語を調べることにより、単語の意味の関係を知ることができるので良い方法であると思う。(Through making the vocabulary cards and looking up similar and opposite words, I can see the relationship between words, so I think it's a good method.)

*論文や英語の教科書を読むときに役立っている。(It has proven useful to me when reading research papers and English textbooks.)

*自分の英語力に見合った単語をえらべば、単語力があがると思う。(If you pick words that fit your level, I think your vocabulary will increase.)

FIGURE 4 Student Evaluation of the Usefulness of Various Items



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relatively little use, it would be interesting to examine this rating for any changes after introducing variation (1) above.

Perhaps the most important benefit of this system is that students come to realize that just knowing the L1 translation of a word is not sufficient (though clearly very useful). Side benefits include being exposed to numerous non-target words, especially in the related words section and through contact with their quiz partner's words. Students also become more comfortable in using monolingual dictionaries. Another important point is that students are exercising initiative in choosing their own words. This may prompt them to keep their eyes open for new words, and encourage them to consider what words are worth learning (or worth spending the time for creating a card). In addition, the teacher is receiving a score which can be used for assessment.

There are some difficulties remaining. The largest is that words chosen are sometimes rather obscure. These are almost invariably found in a bilingual dictionary, either during a random search or as a translation of a certain word. Students need to be encouraged to take words from use in context, and some training in recognizing important words would probably help them make more appropriate choices. In addition, a way of checking pronunciation needs to be devised, and a way to further encourage regular review would be helpful.

## Conclusion

The system explained above requires a rather large commitment of time, both in the classroom and in student preparation, and the list of target words will not be a long one. However, if it can serve as a means of training students in the various factors that are involved in learning a word, it can play a large and long-term role in vocabulary acquisition. The results of the student questionnaire and observation of students indicate that the system does have a positive effect on student behavior when approaching the task of learning a new word. Students who are aware of what is useful for them are better able to take on the task of teaching themselves the words they need to know, and have taken several steps towards becoming independent learners.

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The vocabulary cards introduced here were based upon the notebook entries described in an article by Schmitt and Schmitt (1995).

# 「～が好き／嫌い」と「～を好き／嫌い」に関する使用意識調査と分析

## ～推計学的アプローチ～

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### 1．はじめに

母語において助詞に相当する形式を持たない日本語学習者にとって、どのような品詞にどのような助詞をつけるかという規則を体系的に学習することは非常に難しく、日本語上級者にとっても日本語習得の大きな課題である。しかし、日本人は助詞の使用に関して「学習」(learning) ではなく「習得」(aquisition) という形で自然に身につけているので日本人は助詞の使用の規則性について深く注意を払わずに日本語を運用している。従って、日本語を母語とする日本人であっても、一部の助詞の使用についての一貫性があるとは限らないようである。

特に、「好き」の対象語に「が」を用いるか、「を」を用いるかが現在の日本語の助詞の使用の中で疑問となるところである。実際に、テレビドラマや歌の歌詞、雑誌等で「～を好き」の文を耳にしたり、目にしたりするが、日本語教育においては、森田 (1980) が「『～を好きだ』のような形はもちろん誤用である」と指適している。そこで、日本語を教える者にとっては、「～が好き」を正用とし、「～を好き」を誤用とするのか、あるいは許容とするのか、或は「～が好き」と「～を好き」のどちらもが正用で併用されているとするのか、が問題となる。また、「～を好き」の反義語となる「～を嫌い」の日本人の使用意識に関してはどうなのかも興味深い。特に、英語では動詞「like」の後に目的語（一般的に目的語は「～を」と訳される）がくるという指導をされるので、英語教育を受ける中学生から大学生の年齢層で「～を好き／嫌い」の使用意識が高いのではないかと予想される

そこで本稿では、アンケート＜１＞で「･･･は～が好きです」「･･･は～を好きです」「･･･が～が好きです」、アンケート＜２＞で「･･･は～が嫌いです」「･･･は～を嫌いです」「･･･が～が嫌いです」の各文に関して、日本人がどの程度聞いたり使用しているという意識をもっているのかということを記述式調査とインタビュー調査を行った結果を報告する。さらに、英語教育が日本語に影響しているかどうかを調べるために、「～を好き／嫌い」の使用に関して年齢差があるか否かをカイ２乗検定で調べた。

### ２.アンケート調査

アンケート＜１＞は「私は先生が好きです」「私は先生を好きです」「私が先生を好きです」などの文を示し、A（使う、使わない）、B（聞いたことがある、聞いたことがない）、という項目にそれぞれ○印でチェックする形を取った。さらに、「先生」のところを「犬」、「スポーツ」に置き換えた文も示し、同様にチェックする形を取った。対象語に「Yが好きです」のような中立かつ抽象的なものではなく、具体的な「先生」、「犬」、「スポーツ」を入れたことで、回答者の対象語に関する個人的感情がデータに影響する可能性はある。例えば、回答者にとって「先生」の存在自体が好きではないため、「先生が好きです」「先生を好きです」の両者共、使わない、聞いたことがないという答えになってしまう可能性もある。しかし、「Yが／を」という対象語を入れても回答者には数式のような無機質的なイメージしか湧いてこないだろう。そこで、本研究ではあえて具体的な

対象語を入れることで、回答者に生活に密接な状況を提示し、より実際の日本語運用場面での使用意識に近づけることができると考えた。さらに、自由記述において、「～が好き／嫌い」「～を好き／嫌い」の違いについての説明を求めた。

アンケート回答者の内訳は表1－1、表1－2に示す。

アンケートの結果、「･･･は～が好きです」と「･･･は～が嫌いです」（ハガ構文）を使う·聞いたことがある人は「先生」「犬」「スポーツ」共に94％以上で最も多かった。従って、「好き」「嫌い」に関するハガ構文は規範文の資格を得ていると言える。

一方、「･･･は～を好きです」（ハヲ構文）の使用に関しては、対象語によって差が出ている。「先生」は43.5％、「犬」は33.1％となり、「スポーツ」になると24.8％に留まった。また「･･･は～を嫌いです」に関しては、対象語が「先生」は20.4％、「犬」は14.1％、「スポーツ」嫌15.4％と、「～を好き」の文と比較して使用意識は低い。「･･･は～を嫌いです」の文は対象語が何であれ、ハガ構文と同等に扱うことは難しい。現段階では規範文の資格を得ているとは言い難い。「私は先生を好きです」の文に関しては4割以上の回答者の使用意識があることから、規範文ではないと単に無視できないと言える。

「･･･が～が好きです」（ガガ構文）に関しては、使うと答えた人は1割台、聞いたことがあると答えた人も2割台で、ハガ構文やハヲ構文と比較すると非常に少なかった。さらに、「･･･が～が嫌いです」に関しては、使うと答えた人はいずれも8％以下で1割にも満たず、聞いたことがあると答えた人も1割台に留まった。その理由を考えると、ガガ構文では、行為主体と行為対象とがそれぞれどちらにあるのか判別できないからではないだろうか。例えば、「私が先生が好きです」の文では、「私」は好かれる対象とも、好く主体とも考えられ。また「先生」についても同様のことが言える。三上（1960：201）は「『ガ』が近接して二続く危険があるときに、それを本能的（？）に避けようとする心理もはたらく」とし、また「『ガ』が重なることは、ことに接近して重なることは好ましくありません」（1960：199）と指摘している。さらに木舩 郁（1995：29）も「『が』が重なって、視覚的にも聴覚的にもうるさい感じがする」としている。以上の理由からガガ構文を使う人が少ないと考えられる。

### 3－2　「～を好き／嫌い」の使用における年齢差

実際に中学校の英語教育では、" I like X." の場合、中学生に指導する際は、Xが目的各であることを強調するため、「私はXを好きです」と訳して教えることがあるという意見も何人かの英語教師から聞いた。自由記述の中でも、「『を好きです』は目的をはっきりさせる（英語的）。日本語としては使わない。英語を直訳した文章」（社会人女性57歳）という意見があった。そこで、英語教育の影響を受けて中高生、そして大学生によるハヲ構文の使用意識が高くなるという仮説を立て、小学生、中高生、大学生、社会人と年齢層に分けて、カイ2乗検定をおこなった。特に対象語が「先生」の文＜2＞の結果を表3－1～表3－4に示す。

表3－1を見ると、「私は先生を好きです」の文に関しては0.0001％以下の危険率で有意さが認められた。有意差の要因は、小学生と中高生において、使う実数が使わない実数を3：2の割合で上回っているのに対して、大学生では3：7、社会人では2：3とその関係が逆転し、使う実数が使わない実数を下回っている点にある。表3－2の「先生を好きです」を聞いたことがあるかないか（以下聞く、聞かない）については有意差は認められなかった。表3－3の「先生を嫌い」の文では0.0001％以下の危険率で有意差が認められた。使うか使わないかの実数は、小学生2：3、中高生1：5、大学生1：10、社会人1：4の割合で、全体では1：4の割合で使わない実数が多いのに対し、小学生の使うと答えた比率が他の年齢階層より高いこと、大学生の使うと答えた実数が他の年齢階層より非常に低いことが要因ではないかと考えられる。

文＜5＞の「私は犬を好きです」では0.0001％以下の危険率で有意差が認められ、小学生＞中高生＞大学生＞社会人の割合で使うと答えた実数が減ってくる。聞く、聞かないに関しても0.5％以下の危険率で有意差が認められた。使用学生だけが2：1で聞くと答えた実数が多いが、他の年齢階層では聞く：聞かないがほぼ等しく1：1の割合であった。一方「私は犬を嫌いです」に関しては、0.1％以下の危険率で有意差が認められた。使う：使わないの実数が小学

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生１：４、中高生１：１０、大学生１：１０、社会人１：７の割合であった。「犬を好き」と比較すると、使うと答えた実数は社会人以外の各年齢層半数以下であった。「スポーツを好きです」では0.1%以下の危険率で有意差が認められ、対象語が「先生」「犬」の場合と異なり、使うと答えた実数は低いが、年齢階層による割合が小学生３：７、中高生２：３、大学生１：４、社会人１：４と中高生が使うと答えた割合が一番高かった。しかしながら、反対に「スポーツを嫌い」に関しては、0.001%以下の危険率で有意差が認められ、小学生３：７、中高生１：５、大学生１：１５、社会人１：９の割合で使う、使わないと答えている。小学生では「スポーツを好き」「スポーツを嫌い」の使用意識に相違はないが、中高生では明らかに格差がでている。

### ４.考察と今後の課題

全体的にカイ２乗検定の結果を見ると、ハヲ構文において一番小学生の使用意識が高かった。小学生は英語教育の影響をまだ受けていない段階なので、仮説は崩れたわけである。寺内「1994：24−25）は（L１学習者の形態素の習得順序には一定の順序が存在するのではないかという仮説が注目を集めるようになった」としている。各助詞「ガ」と「ヲ」についても、習得順序があり、小学生についてはまだ、各助詞を完全に習得する段階まで至っていないのかもしれない。それ故に年齢階層による有意差が認められたのではないだろうか。しかし、本稿は寺内が言及しているように、横断的方法で得られた情報であり、結果を一般化しやすいとはいえ、習得順序を示唆するのみにとどまる。一般化しにくいとはいえ、縦断的研究を行い実際の習得順序を研究していくことを今後の研究課題としたい。

また、大学生のハヲ構文に対する使用意識が最も低かったという結果は、規範に従わなければならないという認識が強いせいではないだろうか。規則、規範性を頭に詰め込むことで高い点を取っていくことにつながる受験勉強の影響があるかもしれない。一方、社会人になるとハヲ構文を「聞く」と答えた割合が大学生と比較して高くなるのは、子供と接する機会が増えて「子供から聞く」可能性が高くなるためだと考えられる。

さらに英語教育の影響に関する自由記述を紹介したい。

・「「～を嫌いです」は不自然。「～を好きです」は場合によって使うこともあるし、聞いてもあまり変ではないが…。英語でlikeを習うときは『～を好き』と訳すようにと言われたような気もするが、dislikeは『嫌っている』、hateは『憎む』と教えられたと思う。だから『嫌い』は『好き』と違って英語学習の方面からの混同も少ないのではないだろうか」（大学生女性　21歳）

確かにハヲ構文の使用は英語の直訳的構文であるという認識があるだろう。どこか不自然な日本語であることを中高生は感じているだろう。確かに小学生と中高生を比較すると、英語教育の影響を受けていない小学生の方が使用意識は高かった。しかし前述した様に格助詞の習得過程に起因しているのかもしれない。中高生と大学生·社会人とを比較すると特に「～を好きです」においては使用意識が高いことがわかる。しかしながら、本稿では英語教育の影響が「～を好き」のハヲ構文の使用に影響しているとは言い切れない。さらに、全般的に「～を嫌い」に関しては「～を好き」と比較して、使用意識は低かった。英語の動詞" HATE, DISLIKE" の場合、自由記述からもわかるように「～を嫌いです」と指導されず「嫌い」におけるハヲ構文の使用意識がより低くなる可能性もある。英語教育者の和訳指導に関する意識を調査していくことも考察をより深くするために必要である。しかし現状では、「～を好き」より「～を嫌い」の方が受け入れられにくい要因として、英語教育の影響があるという考えは一般化できない。英語教育の影響よりも日本語自体強い否定的表現を避ける傾向があることが要因ではないだろうか。ハガ構文に関してはもともと規範文であるという認識から、「嫌い」という言葉に引きずられずに規範文の資格を十分得る96%以上の回答者が使用意識を持っていることがデータに現れた。しかしハヲ構文になると「好き」と比べて約半数の20.4%、14.1%、15.4%に減っている。「ヲ」格に関して、「好き」と「嫌い」がなぜ連動しないのか、本調査ではその理由がわからない。連動しない理由を調査することを今後の課題としたい。

さらに本稿では紙面の都合上詳しく検討できなかったが、ヲ格の使用意識が対象によって影響されるということがわかった。カイ２乗検定の結果、対象が有情の場合ヲ格を使う、聞く可能性が高くなり、一方無情の場合、ヲ格を使う、聞く可能性が低くなることに対して極めて高い確率で有意差が認められた。この結果木舩都（1995：

の「対象が有情物の場合にはヲ格が多く出現し、無情物の場合には、ガ格の出現が多くなる」との知見を支持するものである。しかし，有情の対象である「先生」と「犬」を比較すると、有意差の有無や、危険率に違いがみられた。そこで、対象語によってガ格とヲ格の使用意識がどのように変化するのかを比較調査することも今後の課題としたい。

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表1 1　アンケート①有効回答者内訳　（ ）内の数は年齢

| 性別 | 小学生（7 12） | 中高生（12 17） | 大学生（18 21） | 社会人（21 73） | 総合計 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 男 | 71 | 25 | 126 | 34 | 256 |
| 女 | 69 | 34 | 64 | 81 | 248 |
| 合計 | 140 | 59 | 190 | 115 | 504 |

表1 2　アンケート②有効回答者内訳　（ ）内の数は年齢

| 性別 | 小学生（7 12） | 中高生（12 17） | 大学生（18-24） | 社会人（20 63） | 総合計 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 男 | 75 | 30 | 75 | 29 | 209 |
| 女 | 63 | 30 | 55 | 84 | 232 |
| 計 | 138 | 60 | 130 | 113 | 441 |

## ３．調査結果

### ３－１ アンケート集計結果

表２－１　アンケート①集計結果

| | 使う　（%） | 使わない　（%） | 聞いたことがある（%） | 聞いたことがない（%） |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| ①私は先生が好きです | 476（94.4） | 28（ 5.6） | 481（95.4） | 23（ 4.6） |
| ②私は先生を好きです | 219（43.5） | 285（56.5） | 369（73.2） | 135（26.8） |
| ③私が先生が好きです | 69（13.7） | 435（86.3） | 132（26.2） | 372（73.8） |
| ④私は犬が好きです | 491（97.4） | 13（ 2.6） | 495（98.2） | 9（ 1.8） |
| ⑤私は犬を好きです | 167（33.1） | 337（66.9） | 282（56.0） | 222（44.0） |
| ⑥私が犬が好きです | 91（18.1） | 413（81.9） | 146（29.0） | 358（71.0） |
| ⑦私はスポーツが好きです | 495（98.2） | 9（ 1.8） | 496（98.4） | 8（ 1.6） |
| ⑧私はスポーツを好きです | 125（24.8） | 379（75.2） | 228（45.2） | 276（54.8） |
| ⑨私がスポーツが好きです | 73（14.5） | 431（85.5） | 135（26.8） | 369（73.2） |

表２－２　アンケート②集計結果

| | 使う　（%） | 使わない　（%） | 聞いたことがある（%） | 聞いたことがない（%） |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| ①私は先生が嫌いです | 426（96.6） | 15（ 3.4） | 423（96.0） | 18（ 4.0） |
| ②私は先生を嫌いです | 90（20.4） | 351（79.6） | 194（44.0） | 247（56.0） |
| ③私が先生が嫌いです | 26（ 5.9） | 415（94.1） | 72（16.3） | 369（83.7） |
| ④私は犬が嫌いです | 427（96.8） | 14（ 3.2） | 436（98.9） | 5（ 1.1） |
| ⑤私は犬を嫌いです | 62（14.1） | 379（85.9） | 175（39.7） | 266（60.3） |
| ⑥私が犬が嫌いです | 33（ 7.5） | 408（92.5） | 62（14.1） | 379（85.9） |
| ⑦私はスポーツが嫌いです | 425（96.4） | 16（ 3.6） | 435（98.6） | 6（ 1.4） |
| ⑧私はスポーツを嫌いです | 68（15.4） | 373（84.6） | 151（34.2） | 290（65.8） |
| ⑨私がスポーツが嫌いです | 28（ 6.3） | 413（93.7） | 55（12.5） | 386（87.5） |

文②「私は先生を好きです」

表3 1

| | 小学生 | 中高生 | 大学生 | 社会人 | 計 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 使う | 81 | 35 | 56 | 47 | 219 |
| 使わない | 59 | 24 | 134 | 68 | 285 |
| 計 | 140 | 59 | 190 | 115 | 504 |

カイ2乗値 33.3　自由度 3　P＜0.000001

表3 2

| | 小学生 | 中高生 | 大学生 | 社会人 | 計 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 聞く | 103 | 44 | 138 | 84 | 369 |
| 聞かない | 37 | 15 | 52 | 31 | 135 |
| 計 | 140 | 59 | 190 | 115 | 504 |

カイ2乗値 0.1　自由度 3　有意差なし

文②「私は先生を嫌いです」

表3 3

| | 小学生 | 中高生 | 大学生 | 社会人 | 計 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 使う | 50 | 10 | 11 | 19 | 90 |
| 使わない | 88 | 50 | 119 | 94 | 351 |
| 計 | 138 | 60 | 130 | 113 | 441 |

カイ2乗値 34.1　自由度 3　P＜0.000001

表3 4

| | 小学生 | 中高生 | 大学生 | 社会人 | 計 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 聞く | 65 | 23 | 38 | 68 | 194 |
| 聞かない | 73 | 37 | 92 | 45 | 247 |
| 計 | 138 | 60 | 130 | 113 | 441 |

カイ2乗値 24.8　自由度 3　P＜0.00005

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# Create a Writing Environment for Real Beginners

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Writing performs a number of functions that neither a conversation class nor a grammar lesson can. For one thing, it provides students with an opportunity to produce language that is more thoughtful. Writing allows students to think about what they want to say, to practice new or difficult vocabulary and grammar, to share their own experiences, and to present their ideas and opinions. Of course, these can be done in an oral classroom, but with writing, there is the added advantage of time -- time to ask others for information, time to check sources, time to experiment with different ways of saying the same thing. There is time, too, for the teacher to interact with every student. Whereas the grammar class gives opportunity for practice, the writing class gives opportunity to make choices of words and ideas. Secondly, writing is less threatening than oral language because students don't have to perform in front of the class. With the teacher as the primary audience, there is no such thing as a bad idea, a wrong opinion, or a meaningless experience. Finally, writing allows for differences in ability. Students who learn fast or who have a better grasp of English or who have a broader life experience may progress faster, writing longer and better essays than students who don't or can't write as well.

These arguments have convinced me that much more writing should be done by students of all ages, but most teachers I have talked to say they don't know how to plan, teach, assign, check, or grade essays. After years of teaching writing myself at various grades and ability levels, I'm more convinced than ever that writing has value for language learning and can be incorporated into regular English classes.

"Not enough time," is a familiar lament of language teachers. With all of the vocabulary and grammar that must be taught and with all of the mechanical and manipulative drill that needs to be done, there is precious little time left to teach writing. But, if teachers look realistically at how much language is actually remembered compared to what is taught, all must agree that something needs to be done at the earlier levels to encourage better retention. Relevancy is most certainly a primary factor in retention, and so writing about their own experiences and ideas enables students to remember more. Thus, the time wasted reteaching forgotten vocabulary and grammar is replaced by time more valuably spent introducing new language. Besides, writing can be done outside of class. Writing gives the students time to think about grammar and vocabulary, time to reorganize and edit, and time to correct—activities which rarely take place in a typical language class.

## Beginning a Writing Course

When a writing course is begun at any ability level, in junior or senior high, or university, either taught by a native or non-native speaker/teacher, two assumptions can be made. The first is that students have never learned how to write their own essays. Everything the teacher requires of them is new whether it be journal writing, free writing, thoughtful essays, or whatever. The second is akin to the first; that is that the students won't have any idea what the teacher is talking about, no matter what the classroom language is. Students are not familiar with terminology, such as indent, topic sentence, organize, revise. Teachers, therefore, will have to give opportunities to write that require a minimum of brief and simple instructions and which then can form a foundation for further instruction.

On the first day of a writing course, the teacher should ask for a writing sample. In my class, on a B4 page with the lines for writing, students choose from three titles — "Dogs and Cats," "Books," and "My Favorite Place in Kyoto." After making sure that each student knows she should write whatever she pleases on only one topic, I ask all the students to begin and stop them after fifteen minutes. The second half of the B4 page, which has been turned under while they write their sample, shows a simple format with a title, margin, indentation, and double spacing. Below that, the students rewrite their first paragraph in cursive according to the new format and then look in awe at how much they have improved in just one day. At the end of the course, when these papers are brought out again, the students are incredulous about how easy writing has become.

Initial writing assignments should be based on personal experiences, making it easy for the students to put already generated ideas onto paper. The first assignment in my class is a letter to me introducing themselves, written on stationery, and with pictures enclosed. The second is a paragraph about one event that happened last year, such as graduation day or a school trip. The third is generated from their oral class text, *East-West 1* (OUP), lesson 2, which teaches prepositions and names of furniture. The students draw a floor plan of their own bedroom and then describe what is in the room, starting from the door. Other assignments are given that also touch on lessons from their oral text.

One way to build writing confidence is through timed free writing. I tell students that the flow of ideas is irrelevant and mistakes are of no consequence, and most students, therefore, seem to lose their fear of writing. The 'no eraser' rule encourages a freer flow as it eliminates the need for correctness.

## What To Teach

These early assignments, although designed to be easy, are not easy at all. Because students are untrained and lack confidence, and because there are no correct answers, they are afraid and/or hesitant to commit themselves to paper. Several times during each class, I remind them that they can, in fact, learn to write, that mistakes are okay, and that writing is fun. When they discover that their friends and other teachers are impressed with their writing, they discover the satisfaction of writing, too.

Once the students know they can write, more formal instruction begins. Introducing the vocabulary necessary for talking about composition is essential, but difficult. Until it registers, I try to explain the phrases like 'topic sentence' each time I use it and to remind them each time they write to use what I have taught them. We talk about the first sentence as one that tells the reader what you are going to write about (topic sentence). Later we decide that the writer can use a couple of sentences before that to catch the reader's attention. And then we talk about sentences that stretch and explain what the writer is writing about (supporting sentences). And of course these sentences have to be in some kind of order that helps the reader understand what the writer is trying to say (organization). After the essay has been written, the writer, with the help of the teacher and friends, can do some rearranging of ideas and adding of more information and examples (revising) (peer editing). Once the ideas are down on paper, then it is time to look for mistakes (editing). In the early stages of writing, we do not spend much time on editing. I find it more valuable to work with ideas with beginning writers, and have noticed that their grammar learning from previous classes starts to influence their writing when they become more comfortable with writing. In fact, in second, third and fourth drafts, a considerable amount of correcting seems to be done subconsciously.

## Organizing the Work

Every assignment is printed on a B4 page. Directions for the assignment and work-up exercises are there, as well as lines for doing those exercises and writing the first draft. This work is folded to the inside; the student's name, class number and assignment title is written in the upper right hand corner. Every paper relevant to the assignment is inserted into this folder. First drafts are usually collected on the same day, but because the ability of the students is so varied, subsequent drafts are turned in at different times. In the early stages, students' errors are often similar, so I print a list of common problems, circle the appropriate comment and staple it to the draft. Later, when the comments need to be more varied for each student, I write the comments on the outside of the folder. I also write the dates that the drafts and final essay are submitted.

Final papers in my class have to be written in ink using cursive letters and be double spaced. The double spacing and ink is for my benefit—it's easier on my eyes. Cursive writing is my personal choice, not one that determines whether a composition is good or not. It is my way of helping them develop attractive handwriting.

Grading varies from paper to paper, depending on what I have emphasized in class, and so I make up a grading sheet for each essay. For early papers, I give more points for format and less for content. Later, they are graded on the clear use of topic and supporting sentences. I also give points for the length of the essay and for the average sentence length as an incentive to write more information and to use more complex sentences. The grading sheet is stapled to the final essay to show the student where her weaknesses and strengths lie. No red marks are put on the essay, leaving it 'clean' as a souvenir of work well done.

## Conclusion

In my presentation at JALT96, I tried to show how time to find information, time to experiment with language, and time to practice writing in a positive atmosphere all enhance a student's overall language comprehension. Additionally, I tried to demonstrate with student samples and comments on how writing promotes enthusiasm for learning and satisfaction for a job well done. Life is filled with events and experiences, feelings, thoughts, and ideas that need to be recorded. Conversing in English is rewarding; grammar lessons are essential. Writing, whether it be a journal or essay, however, is a tangible record of a student's progress both in English and in the development of expression.

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# Preparing Students to Write in their Disciplines

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## Introduction

All good language instruction is goal-driven. Specific language features are taught to enable learners to accomplish particular tasks, such as converse appropriately with foreign business clients, make travel reservations, or order a pizza from Domino's. This approach to language education is frequently called English for Specific Purposes (ESP), a protest movement, of sorts, within ELT against other, less directed, forms of language instruction that have so far failed to produce satisfactory results — particularly in Japan.

Now, however, as more and more Japanese schools begin to reevaluate their writing courses interest in ESP among post-secondary schools has increased as educators search for writing instruction that is more relevant to their students' specific academic and professional needs. This paper addresses this interest by offering writing instructors an intelligent plan for developing such a writing program.

## Targeting two discourse communities

ESP writing instruction at the post-secondary level is frequently designed to orient writers to two different discourse communities: (a) a particular academic discourse community and (b) a vocational or professional discourse community. Both discourse groups are socio-rhetorical communities of individuals drawn to one another by common goals and concepts of appropriate behavior and language. Writing curriculum planners must determine if their program should orient their students into one or both of these two possible target communities.

### Needs analysis

Most successful ESP writing instruction begins with a thorough analysis of learner needs to direct the development of appropriate content and teaching methods. In most college or university situations, the following two Needs Analysis Guides would be sufficient to assist a writing instructor in assessing student needs.

*Guide for assessing academic writing needs*

1. English writing will be required of my students in what courses? Introduction to Western Philosophy? Contemporary American Literature? Senior Seminar?
2. What written English genres will be required in these courses? Essay exam? Book review? Public speech? Technical report? Annotated bibliography?
3. What will be valued by course instructors in these genres? Originality of opinion? Skillful use of citations? Correct use of punctuation? Error-free grammar?
4. What information and experience must be provided in my English writing course that will enable my students to perform these writing tasks successfully? Rules of punctuation? Strategies of argumentation? Examples of good citations?
5. What are the learning preferences of my students? Weekly Grammar quizzes? Journal writing? Use of HTML?
6. How will I evaluate student performance? Holistically evaluated writing portfolios? Grammar exams?
7. How will I evaluate program success? Pre-/post-testing? TOEFL or TOEIC? Teacher evaluations by students? Feedback from other instructors who assign English writing in their content courses?
8. What will I improve the next time I teach this writing course? Order of presentation? Introduction of another genre?

*Guide for assessing vocational/professional writing needs*

Usually, preparing language learners to participate successfully in the written English discourse of their vocation or profession is the main concern of most ESP writing instruction. In order to prepare learners for the language tasks that will be required of them in their work, it is useful for an ESP writing instructor to obtain the following information:

1. There must be some specific and accurate information about the culture of the students' target field(s) of study. Students need to know about the primary goals of their profession, the primary activities that its members engage in to accomplish these goals, and the values and cultural conventions that govern professional activities. ESP writing instruction will not be motivating nor its purpose properly understood if students do not have general knowledge of the normal activities in their target discipline. This information can be provided by professors from the students' subject area(s), by ESP writing professors, or by both in some sort of cooperative effort. Inviting scientists or engineers to class to talk about their profession, their work, and their writing is one effective way to accomplish this.

2. In addition to some general knowledge about their field and how writing fits into the scheme of things, students need to know about the written English discourse that is uniquely characteristic of their target discipline. This should include information on the profession's genres and sub-genres, audience, purposes, print and electronic formats, high-frequency grammatical forms, high-frequency vocabulary, mechanics, efficient means of writing and revision,

dissemination factors, cultural/professional taboo, and so forth. A graphical representation of the genres and their features, along with many good examples, can be very useful to help students understand both linguistic detail as well as rhetorical purpose.

3. An ESP writing course must consist of appropriate instructional activities that are tailored to the specific language levels and personal characteristics of the learners. These activities must enable students to learn *about* the writing that is practiced in their discipline as well as enable them to learn *how to produce* this type of writing. Activities that allow students to produce writing in situations that approximate those of professionals are likely to be more effective. Imitative exercises without rhetorical contexts generally bore young writers and don't give them exposure to all the aspects of writing they will encounter in their careers. Team teaching with a content professor in the students' subject area can often provide one good solution to this problem.

## ESP Research

How do teachers determine their students' academic and vocational/professional writing needs? They must gather most of the information they need on their own or in cooperation with other writing teachers serving the same kind of student population. Information about the students' entry level English, knowledge of academic and vocational/professional writing, and personal learning preferences may be obtained by employing pretests, student questionnaires, and student interviews.

Information about the vocabulary, grammar, punctuation, mechanics, and genre conventions of the target texts may be obtained by distributing and analyzing faculty questionnaires, conducting faculty interviews, distributing and analyzing vocational/professional questionnaires, conducting vocational/professional interviews, collecting genuine writing samples for analysis (e.g. length, formatting, use of punctuation and mechanics, use of active/passive constructions, use of personal pronouns, organization of information, title and subtitling, what constitutes proof or evidence, level of detail, useful vocabulary, etc.), conducting case studies of successful student and/or professional writers, analyzing academic and/or disciplinary texts for high frequency vocabulary and grammatical constructions, and surveying ESP literature for useful research.

## ESP writing research and instruction at the University of Aizu

In order to illustrate ESP writing research and instruction, I would like to briefly outline some of the research we have been conducting at the University of Aizu to create effective ESP writing courses for our students in the computer sciences.

## Source of Data

In the first stage of research, the primary source of data about written English discourse in computer science has been our university's computer faculty of approximately 87 members from 20 different nations. Surveys and short follow-up interviews were conducted with twenty-five members of the faculty, detailed case studies were conducted with two members of the faculty (one native and one non-native English writer), and additional information was gathered through surveys of professional literature in computer science along with computer-assisted analyses of English vocabulary and grammatical constructions appearing most frequently in computer science discourse. (See Orr, 1995b; Orr, Christianson, Goetze, & Okawara, 1995.)

Some of the information we gathered that is of particular use to our ESP writing program will be explained in the rest of this paper.

## Definition of Computer Science

To assist our writing teachers and students in understanding the essence of computer science, we discovered that the Association of Computing Machinery (ACM), one of the main professional organizations for computer scientists, had a very clear description of the field. According to the ACM, *Computer science is the systematic study of algorithmic processes that describe and*

***transform information — the theory, analysis, design, efficiency, implementation, and application. The fundamental question underlying all computer science is "What can be efficiently automated?"*** (Denning, 1988)

### Writing in Computer Science

When we looked at all the English writing that takes place in the computer profession, we found roughly twenty-two different kinds of writing. In broad terms, these could be categorized according to two general functions: (a) to manipulate *information* and (b) to manipulate *resources*. All otherfunctions were simply small pragmatic steps toward one of these two larger goals.

To help students understand how these genres functioned more specifically within the profession, we developed a chart that grouped writing under four main categories and four sub-categories.

1. Storage-Directed Writing
Purpose: to manage the mental/ physical storage of information
    a) notational support (e.g. notes in the margins of journal articles or conference proceedings, etc.)
    b) organizational support (e.g. lists of information sources, facts, formulas, etc.)

The role of writing in this aspect of professional work is often overlooked, and yet it is an important one, particularly in computer science where reading input is so immense. In our investigation of 25 computer scientists in our Department of Computer Hardware and Department of Computer Software, for example, "faculty members claimed they read anywhere from 1,030 to 25,500 pages of professional literature1 each year, with the average being 5,558 pages." Native English speakers read on average 10,667 pages of profession-related English and non-native English speakers from 12 other language groups read 3,308 pages of English on average (Orr, 1995b, p. 21). With such a tremendous load of information for the human brain to process, clever writing and organizational strategies must be employed to manage this input and make it readily accessible when needed.

2. Process-Directed Writing
Purpose: to facilitate the information creation process (e.g. diagrams and mathematical formulas annotated with notes and memos)

3. Input-Directed Writing
Purpose: to obtain information, approval, assistance, resources (e.g. stand-alone e-mail questions and requests, proposals, calls for papers)

4. Output-Directed Writing
Purpose: to disseminate information to (re)define and/or advance the profession and its membership or to contribute to the profession's knowledge base
    a) community-building writing (e.g. research lab home pages, biographical sketches, letters from an editor or SIG [Special Interest Group] chairperson)
    b) knowledge-building writing (e.g. technical reports, conference papers/ proceedings, journal articles)

For more detailed descriptions and models of professional writing practices in the computer sciences, see Orr, 1995b.

To help orient computer science students to the writing characteristics of computer science, it is best to prioritize information according to immediate need and/or frequency of use. The English writing instruction that is covered in freshman Composition 1 and 2 at the University of Aizu, for example, consists of the following:

### Genres selected for instruction (Freshman Composition)

- digital dialog
    - simple two-person exchanges (simple questions and answers)
    - complex multi-person exchanges (well-anchored discussion)
- object descriptions
    - short autobiographical sketches (1-3 sentences)
    - longer autobiographical sketches (1-3 paragraphs)
    - electrical product description (e.g., laptop computer)

- narratives
  - short, reflective accounts of past events
- process descriptions
  - directions on how to perform a particular computer function (e.g. add sound to a Web page)
  - explanation of how something works (e.g. a computer mouse)
- abstracts and bibliographies
  - abstract of a longer piece of writing in the computer sciences
  - annotated bibliography

More complex genres are covered in Technical Writing 1 and 2, Advanced Writing, and Research Methods, and applied in computer science courses, graduation research, and in the graduate school scheduled to open April 1, 1997.

## Language Features

In addition to genre, an ESP writing course should also direct some specific attention to vocabulary and grammar items frequently employed in computer science discourse. Here are a few items that we address when teaching computer science students:

*Specialist Computer Science vocabulary*
areal density, benchmark, command queuing, femtosecond, hypercube, LISP, synchro-stratum, thermionic, Unicode, wafer, WAIS.[2]

*Non-specialist Computer Science vocabulary*
computer screen, click, delete, e-mail, file, font, key, keyboard, highlight, Internet, menu, mouse, printer, scan, Web page, window, World Wide Web (vs. Worldwide Web).[3]

*High frequency General English vocabulary*
analysis, application, device, efficient, human, management, perform, problem, project, research, results, such, time, use, verify, which[4]

*High frequency or problematic grammatical features*

- Adjective Clauses Example: This paper discusses some general requirements for CASE *tools which support object-oriented software development*.
- Passives Example: In this paper, a model of a heterostructure bipolar transistor incorporating an RT collector structure *is developed and discussed*.
- Anthropomorphization (inanimate subjects with active verbs) Example: computers *perform*, the screen *shows*, a computer program *instructs*, this paper *presents*[5]

For those interested in viewing specific writing course syllabi, homework assignments, and instruction material used at the University of Aizu, point your favorite Web browser at the Center for Language Research on the University of Aizu campus. Here some of our faculty have begun putting courseware and research papers on WWW to provide more efficient access.
<http://www.u-aizu.ac.jp/public/www/labs/clrs/welcome.html\#to>

## Conclusion

When language learners complete their high school education, their energies are no longer absorbed by entrance exam preparation and they are now free to develop their academic and career-related writing skills. Universities, colleges and language schools are ideal sites for this kind of training. If writing instructors at these institutions can provide effective ESP writing instruction to meet the genuine academic and disciplinary writing needs of their students, then NNSs will enjoy more opportunities to participate in the English discourse of their respective academic and vocational or professional communities.

## Notes

1. Professional literature refers to all print and digital profession-related text such as journal articles, calls for papers, conference proceedings, technical reports, e-mail correspondence with other researchers, Internet discussion on computer science lists, instruction manuals, Web pages, books, product catalogues, etc.
2. This vocabulary is primarily taught by computer scientists who cover this

material in computer science courses. Language faculty teach the English used in the definitions and explanations of these specialist terms.
3. This vocabulary is taught by language teachers.
4. For more detailed research on vocabulary selection, see Orr, T., Christianson, K., Goetze, C., & Okawara, H., 1995.
5. Anthropomorphization seems to be especially problematic for Japanese. See Kojima, S., & Kojima, K., 1978.

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# Writing and Peer Feedback Tasks

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### Introduction

The language lesson in its present context represents the evolution of both curriculum and syllabus design. Juxtaposed to this natural change over time in foreign and second language course design and teaching, is the relationship of methodology to lesson planning, and more specifically, to the management of the lesson. Traditionally, according to Nunan (1989), a major difference between syllabus design and methodology is that the former tackles grading and content whereas the latter deals with activities and their sequences (p. 15). However, current trends in second and foreign language teaching, including the communicative language teaching approaches emerging in the late 1970s (Richards & Rodgers, 1986), encourage integration of syllabus design and methodology, thereby emphasizing evaluation and content from lesson to lesson.

The language lesson, as described by Prabhu, is "a unit in a planned curricular sequence, an instance of teaching method in operation, a patterned social activity, and an encounter between human personalities" (1992, p. 225).

Prabhu's main concerns are that the language lesson be understood as a relatively complicated event in the classroom and that as such, teachers should explore elements of the event, its routines, and speculate on outcomes. In short,

> teachers need to be theorists — not in the sense of being able to wield the apparatus of scholarship or the

> skills of academic argument, but in the sense of operating with an active concept of the cause–effect relationship between teaching and learning. (Prabhu, 1992, p. 239)

From this perspective, language teaching has arrived at a point where teacher and learner roles have necessarily changed. Traditionally, the teacher has been seen as an important (and in some cases the only) source of reference — the disseminator of knowledge. Similarly, student behavior has been described as imitative and confined. At present, what is seen is the teacher facilitating classroom interactions and the students assuming more responsibility for their learning. This is not to say that the teacher has relinquished responsibility for teaching and learning, but rather that the nature of responsibility has changed. The teacher, as a facilitator/guide, must focus more on creatively planning and adapting activities and less on controlling and monitoring student output.

In order to frame the description of peer writing activities which are central to this paper, it is helpful to return to the concept of "theory" as originally referenced here to Prabhu, and now placed in context with reference to classroom activities, namely the specific peer and teacher writing tasks described in the Procedures and Outcomes section of this paper.

> For classroom activities to be considered more than protective routines, it is minimally necessary for teachers to be operating with their own beliefs about the pedagogic value of those activities — with their own notions or theories of how learning comes about and how the teaching that is done is bringing it about. (Prabhu, 1992, p. 237)

As one such example of the idea that teachers need to have their "own beliefs" about teaching and classroom activities, consider the principle of awareness. In both the peer and teacher feedback components of the writing activities described in the Procedures and Outcomes section of this paper, a central premise is that awareness plays an important role in the learning of language in the classroom. Awareness is a type of consciousness described by Schmidt (1994) in van Lier (1996, p. 70) which refers to knowledge of rules. This type of knowledge is important for students involved in providing peer feedback and revising written work.

## Background

The setting for this series of activities is a technological university with approximately 8,000 undergraduate students where languages are not offered as majors. First and second year students take a series of required English courses based on structural–functional syllabi and elective courses in English and German. The English courses average between 35 to 40 students per class, so each teacher has approximately 180 students per term. There are three 9- to 10-week terms as opposed to the two 14-week terms common at many universities. Therefore the amount of time the teachers have to evaluate writing assignments and provide feedback and guidance is somewhat short. When a student submits a writing assignment, typically the teacher evaluates it, then returns it to the student with a grade and some feedback, but often the feedback in the current structural–functional syllabus is not of a type which would encourage the student to make revisions. If the grade does not satisfy the student, he or she will perhaps try harder for a higher one on the next paper, but what will he or she do differently in that paper? In the interest of encouraging students to proofread their papers before turning them in, a decision was made to elaborate the writing process.

Part of this process involves looking at the various classroom roles. There are two main sets of roles: the teacher–student set of roles and the student–student set. The teacher–student set of roles often tends to be based on authority on the part of the teacher and subordination on the part of the student. Students do what the teacher says not because it is a good idea or will help them, but because the teacher is the authority figure in the classroom. After enduring this kind of role set for a number of years, many students rebel against it without thinking about the content.

The student–student set of roles, on the other hand, tends to be based on a common enemy: English as a Foreign Language. It is this feeling of "being in the same boat as the other students" that we as teachers can use in our classrooms. Tasks can be designed that have both affective outcomes, which modify students' feelings regarding such things as self- image, self-worth and motivation, and constructive outcomes, the kinds of things that cause the writer to make changes in a composition.

### Procedures and Outcomes

The data for the writing activities consist of original paragraph—level writing assignment submissions from eight students; student responses to a peer feedback worksheet; three to five subsequent revisions of the original paragraph; and correction symbols marked on the revised paragraphs by the teacher. These data were collected from an elective writing course, based on a process–oriented syllabus being offered for the first time in the university's history.

The original assignment to be submitted for evaluation was to write a simple listing paragraph (typed, containing the three parts of a paragraph and using a relatively uncomplicated level of English) consistent with the model in the textbook. The students were not informed that they would later be required to give peer feedback and rewrite their paragraphs. It should be noted here that this writing assignment, typical of the syllabus, is also typical of assignments given in the required (structural–functional syllabi) courses, save that the elective class student would additionally be required to provide peer feedback and rewrite the assignment.

Therefore, the students in the elective class received a peer feedback worksheet to be completed during class. Each student received another student's paper and went through the worksheet, answering the various questions. Many of the questions deal with constructive feedback, i.e. understanding of the main idea, supporting information, and vocabulary. The final question, on the other hand, is an affective item; the respondent gives the writer feedback on aspects enjoyed and asks the writer questions about the content of the paragraph (see Appendix).

Feedback responses to the various questions differed in length among respondents. Possible changes to titles, topic sentences, and conclusion sentences were given as feedback. Unknown vocabulary was written down and although the students were encouraged to write definitions in English, some of them were in Japanese. Occasionally, meanings were omitted because the word in question was ". . . not in my dictionary." Sentences not understood were also written down to encourage the original writer to make them clearer. Paragraph length was addressed with some respondents looking simply at the number of words and others at the content of the paragraph. Paragraph form and the existence of the three main paragraph parts were also checked.

After the feedback responses were read by the original writer, the second version of the paragraph was written. New information often appeared coinciding with the classmate's feedback; sometimes, even though there was no direct response about a particular aspect of the paragraph, it was evident that the writer had taken a second look at it and made changes. Up to that point the students had given each other feedback about their paragraphs and rewritten them based on that feedback.

The teacher then entered the process with the use of correction symbols, in order to indicate to the student some of the more prominent errors. Using the symbols, which the students also had for reference, the teacher was able to quickly identify such things as grammar or spelling mistakes, inappropriate vocabulary, and lack of clarity. Each writer then produced the third version of the paragraph, making changes based on the correction symbols; some of the changes made were satisfactory, but some were not. For the third and subsequent versions, the students were encouraged to focus on micro–level corrections. The audience for the composition was thus shifted from peer to teacher, though many students continued to express interest in their peers' revised papers. The fourth and fifth versions of this composition repeated the cycle of teacher highlighting errors and student fixing them as best as possible; some compositions required fewer correction cycles than others. With each writing assignment the initial student-to-student feedback acted as a kind of "buffer" for the subsequent teacher-to-student correction which occurred later in the process.

## Discussion

Feedback responses to the various questions differed in length among respondents, perhaps as a result of the writers' or respondents' levels of English or differences in what was perceived to be an "appropriate response." Noteworthy is that a student who produced a short paragraph (several typed lines) could find him or herself confronted with a full page and a half of constructive and affective feedback. Since this feedback came from a peer, it could be argued that the student's awareness was raised, as evidenced by the macro–level changes made in subsequent versions, specifically the addition of information, details, examples, and conclusion sentences, as opposed to mere spelling corrections and grammatical changes.

Occasionally, meanings were omitted from the item on the peer feedback worksheet requiring the respondent to indicate unfamiliar vocabulary because the word in question was ". . . not in my dictionary," due either to a spelling error or an inadequacy of the respondent's dictionary. This too, however, raised awareness among students — it bothered them that a peer could point to a word and make the logical (albeit limited) argument that if the word was not in the dictionary, it could not possibly be English! The original writers then naturally shifted their focus back and forth from meaning to form in order to revise their writing for their peers.

It was also found that compositions written at the beginning of a term required more correction cycles than those submitted later; perhaps the students changed the way they produced first drafts of written work. In their previous writing experience at the university, it was not explicit that a teacher would require them to produce original written work which would be subsequently revised and rewritten. In an effort to save time and rewrites, therefore, the students learned to be more aware, to identify, notice, and focus on both the macro–level guidelines of the assignment as well as the micro–level detailed types of errors indicated to them with correction symbols such as those used in the first assignment.

The affective item at the end of the peer feedback worksheet, which asks the respondent to indicate which two aspects he or she liked about the paragraph and why, as well as to ask two intelligent questions about the content of the composition, often served a dual purpose. First, the writer could be flattered and/or motivated by the apparent "interest" taken by the respondent. Second, the questions often provided a springboard for new information and details which the writer could then include in a rewrite.

In conclusion, we feel that by investigating a relatively narrow aspect of our own teaching — namely, the level of awareness of our students — we have been able to create more meaningful communicative activities for the writing classroom. Although we have not designed a study to prove the effectiveness of a specified methodology on the language acquisition for a group of learners, we do feel that we have participated in the evolution of language teaching and in the exploration of our own beliefs on pedagogy as described by Prabhu's teaching and learning cause–effect relationship.

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## Appendix

### Peer Feedback Worksheet

Write your answers in sentences. Use your own A-4 paper.

1. Whose report are you reading? What is his/her class and number?

2. Read the title and/or the first sentence of the report and write it down.
   What do you think the report will be about?

3. Read the whole report.
   Write a new title for this report.
   What is the main idea of this report?

4. Read the report again and make a table like the one on page 8 of your textbook.

5. Write down the words from this report that are new for you.
   Write down their meanings.

6. Write down the sentences from the report that you cannot understand.
   After each sentence, write one sentence to explain why you cannot understand the sentence.

7. Write down the conclusion sentence.
   Now, read the report again and write a new conclusion sentence.
   What did you change? Why did you change it?

8. Do you think that this report is long enough?
   Why? / Why not?

9. Is the report indented? Is the report in paragraph form?
   Is there a topic sentence, some body sentences and a conclusion sentence?

10. Write a short note to the classmate who wrote this report. Tell him/her two things that you really liked about his/her report. Also, tell him/her why you liked those two things. Then, write down two intelligent questions that you have about his/her report.

# Conversation Strategies, Timed Practice, and Noticing in Large Oral Communication Classes

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## Introduction

Teachers who face the task of teaching large classes of rather poorly motivated non-language majors often sacrifice any hope of actually improving their students' oral abilities for the more realistic goals of keeping students busy in class and maintaining smooth classroom management. We often joke that large classes require not teaching, but "crowd control." The weekly conversation activity (my students have named it "the easy English activity") described in this paper focuses on this problem by addressing and providing solutions for these key questions:

- What kind of oral English practice will engage these students?
- Once motivated, what is an effective way to keep students focused on the target language?
- How can students best learn from their oral practice?

The activity itself has three main components (see figure 1): Students practice conversation strategies; they practice in timed segments that keep them focused on the task; and the practice is followed by a period of reflection wherein they record language used in their conversation. The activity is part of a larger framework that also includes teacher interaction:

The activity and post activity are repeated 4 - 7 times a lesson, depending on how long each conversation lasts. Students stand in groups of eight, changing partners each time. Classes meet weekly for ninety minutes; by the end of the semester, approximately 45 -55 minutes is spent on this activity. In total, students will have spent more than half of the class devoted to this activity.

The following is a closer examination of the three major components of the activity: conversation strategies, timed practice, and noticing.

## Conversation strategies

In recent years, more and more course books are including conversation strategies (CS) as a part of their regular units (Keller and Warner, 1988; Rost and McGannon, 1993; Kehe and Kehe, 1994). Conversation strategies are handy, common lexical phrases used to show interest, show agreement, stall for time, clarify input and output, ask for repetition, summarize, negotiate meaning, etc. (see figure 2). Conversation strategies in this sense overlap with, but differ from *communication strategies* in that the latter concern managing the problems that arise in the production & comprehension of L2 speech (Dörnyei and Scott, in press), while the former is regarded as a grouping of lexical items from which teachers can draw words and phrases that will facilitate conversation. For example, opening gambits like "How's it going?" and "What's new?" rightly belong in the category of conversation strategies; communication strategies like *feigning understanding* and *mumbling* clearly do not, and it would be a strange teacher indeed who might encourage students to master them.

The underlying assumption in the teaching of CS is that university-level students have enough English grammar and

*pre-activity*
conversation strategy controlled practice (if applicable)
preparation of topic question/opinions/vocabulary (outside of class)
conversation strategy warm-up
*activity*
free practice of CS / questions / vocabulary
noticing during timed conversation
reflection after conversation
*post-activity*
teacher wrap-up

**Figure 1 Activity Sequence**

Me too! Me neither! For example?? Never mind!!

Hmm...Let me see That's a difficult question!

How about you?
How's it going? Really?
What's new? Oh yeah?
Just a moment, please!
That's great!
That's too bad!

Nice talking with you! You too!
See ya later!
You're kidding!!
I'm jealous!

Sounds nice/interesting/fun/boring!

**Figure 2 Examples of conversation strategies**

vocabulary to have rudimentary conversations on simple topics; what they really need are the interactional phrases that will transform those simple "question-answer, question-answer" into real conversations. Since so much of the language native speakers use on a daily basis is interactional (i.e. used to maintain relationships) rather than transactional (functions to achieve some purpose) (Brown and Yule, 1983), then students should learn as much interactional language as possible. Furthermore, because interactional language is highly ritualized, consisting of routine formulas and pre-fabricated language chunks (Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992), they can be easy for students to remember. However, they are not especially easy to teach, because many CS (e. g. message abandonment) do not lend themselves easily to pairwork exercises or substitution drill dialogues.

What do students think about conversation strategies? Almost all students (95%) responded that using CS improves their conversations; in fact, 88% said they want to learn more strategies. About two-thirds also claimed that they had never really used CS before the class. Students seem to like them not only because they are relatively short strings that are easy to produce and remember, but also because they are very powerful. Even a limited number of CS make their conversations more natural, giving students confidence as they start on the road to pragmatic fluency.

## Timed practice

In the activity, conversation strategies are practiced in conversations of up to five minutes in length where the student's goal is to use the CS as much as possible. Among the first CS taught are openers and closers that students can use to begin and end their conversation; timed practice tells them when to begin and end. Students speak until they hear the signal from the stopwatch and then they finish quickly. Conversations start at one to two minutes and get longer every week until students are speaking in five minute conversations with no pauses by the end of the semester. (This goal is explicitly stated for them in the first lesson.)

From a classroom management perspective, timed conversation has several benefits. First, all students start and finish at the same time -- this way, more skilled students can't finish the activity faster than weaker students, a common problem with learners practicing dialogs or information gap exercises. Next, it's easy to plan lessons (e. g. 8 conversations @ 4 minutes = 45 minutes of a lesson, including reflection periods (discussed below)). And since a stopwatch beeper tells students when to end, there's no talking over a roomful of students to quiet them down.

The greatest benefit of using timed practice is that it keeps learners speaking in an "English only" environment. Naturally, if students have a limited time in which to perform a task, they tend to remain focused on it. But when the pressure of a timer is added, the task assumes an air of excitement and performance as well. The framework of timed conversation creates a stage; the partners are the players, and the play is English.

How many learners spoke "English only" during timed conversation practice? Sixty-three percent said that they did. Additionally, learners were asked to speculate about how much English they might speak if they didn't converse within the timed practice framework; an overwhelming 81% of respondents said they would probably speak more Japanese if the speaking activity were more open-ended. This may be because with timed conversation, learners have the psychological advantage of knowing that the conversation will end soon, and when it's finished, they can take refuge in their native tongue for a moment. With more open-ended practice, on the other hand, students don't know when that moment of respite will come and are perhaps more likely to launch into their native language.

## Noticing

Armed with conversation strategies, practiced in timed conversations, students can talk together and stay in an "English only" environment. Despite using well-formed CS, however, learners often produce grammatically ill-formed utterances. The tacit assumption held by many university-level EFL teachers in Japan is that most of the non-language majors in their oversized classes have reached a level of grammatical accuracy that most teachers can do little to improve upon. Student attitude doesn't help the cause for grammar either and may support this assumption. Of 213 respondents, 56% said they did not want to learn more grammar. In an attempt to discern attitudes toward the teaching of fluency vs. accuracy, students were asked "Is practicing CS more important than practicing grammar?" An overwhelming ninety percent answered "Yes." This is admittedly a broad question that deserves qualification and further study, but at the very least, such a response indicates a rejection of the explicit practice of grammar. Grammatical accuracy, however, is undeniably important; even the most fast-talking L2 learner can be judged non-fluent when too many errors obfuscate the message (Schmidt, 1992).

The cognitive act of *noticing* (Schmidt & Frota 1986; Swain, 1995; Ellis, 1994) can help students improve grammatical accuracy, as well as vocabulary and conversation strategy use. When students are trained to notice the language they use and the language their partners use, it adds a new dimension of learning to every conversation they have. Practice becomes *goal-oriented* speaking: "I'll practice speaking & try to find something I say that's wrong or listen for something I can steal from my partner."

An example will illustrate the role of noticing in the activity. A student practices

CS during a timed conversation. Her goal is to notice the strategies used by her partner. During the timed practice, her partner says "That's a difficult question." The student notices the new language feature, compares it with her present output and realizes that she never uses that CS. She judges it a good feature to remember and retains it until she can write it down after the conversation. Ellis (1994) calls this *intake*, a language feature that is noticed and held in temporary memory which the learner can use as output later. The noticing activity is not complete, however, until the intake is recorded during a reflection period following the timed conversation. Following this, the teacher can elicit intake from students to wrap-up before starting the activity again.

Asking low-level students to practice conversation and be conscious of the language used can be a cognitively demanding task, one that requires some training. Early in the semester, students are trained to report on the content of their partners' speech (e. g. "Yuki wants to see *Independence Day*") then shift to noticing the form of the output ("She said *incredibly* expensive about tickets. It's a new word!"). Students practice noticing CS and vocabulary items before working up to grammar structures. If learners are reminded of certain grammatical structures relevant to weekly conversation topics ("If I have money, I'll go to the movies"), the reminders make the structure salient enough to make noticing possible and an effective tool for improving accuracy.

What do students think about noticing? Most said it was difficult, but also said it became easier with practice. Eighty-two percent felt noticing helped them to see what language they used, and 76% reported that it helped them learn language from their partners. An early assumption in the creation of the activity was that it would be cognitively less demanding on learners to notice language features in their own output rather than in their partners' output. The figures above seem to support that assumption, as do the results of the question "Was it easier to remember the language you used than the language your partner used?" (see figure 3). As much as they found noticing to be helpful, however, they probably did not find it as much fun as speaking practice; two-thirds of the students said they would rather have another conversation instead of noticing between conversations.

| Question | | Yes | Yes, some-what | Not really | No |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | CS makes my conversations better | 57.7% | 37.1% | 4.7% | .5% |
| 2. | I used CS before this class | 6.1 | 25.4 | 43.2 | 25.4 |
| 3. | Practicing CS is more important than practicing grammar | 53.8 | 36.7 | 8.6 | 1.0 |
| 4. | I wanted to learn more CS | 49.3 | 38.5 | 11.7 | .5 |
| 5. | I wanted to learn more grammar | 16.9 | 26.8 | 39.4 | 16.9 |
| 6. | Practicing CS is more important than practicing grammar | 53.8 | 36.7 | 8.6 | 1.0 |
| 7. | Timed practice is a good way to practice conversation | 48.6 | 39.6 | 9.9 | 1.9 |
| 8. | I spoke "English only" during timed practice | 18.4 | 45.3 | 30.7 | 5.7 |
| 9. | If we didn't do timed practice, I might speak more Japanese | 48.8 | 32.9 | 16.9 | 1.4 |
| 10. | Noticing was difficult | 27.4 | 46.2 | 21.7 | 4.7 |
| 11. | Noticing became easier by the end of the semester | 16.3 | 56.5 | 24.9 | 2.4 |
| 12. | It was easier to remember the language I used more than the language my partner used | 29.5 | 40.0 | 26.7 | 3.8 |
| 13. | Noticing helped me to understand what language I used often and what language I didn't use | 28.2 | 53.6 | 13.9 | 4.3 |
| 14. | Noticing helped me to learn language from my partners | 29.0 | 46.2 | 18.6 | 6.2 |
| 15. | I want to have another conversation instead of noticing between conversations | 21.9 | 43.8 | 31.4 | 2.9 |
| 16. | My conversation has improved because of this class | 31.3 | 55.9 | 11.8 | .9 |
| 17. | I enjoy English more than before | 35.1 | 48.8 | 14.2 | 1.9 |
| 18. | I worked hard to improve my conversations | 21.9 | 52.9 | 25.2 | 1.9 |
| 19. | For my conversation grade I should get ... | A<br>17.2% | B<br>52.0 | C<br>27.5 | F<br>2.0 |

Figure 3: Questionnaire results

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## Conclusion

A problem with noticing is that when students are more or less at the same low level, there's not a very wide gap between learners. It's unlikely that partners can introduce new vocabulary or grammatical patterns unless they prepare for it outside of class. There is also some question about the benefit of keeping language features in short-term memory between noticing and the reflection period. Why can't students quickly jot down the intake during the conversation? For fluency activities to work though, students need to interact with each other, not with pens and paper. Nonetheless, it is doubtful that some learners have much to gain by practicing this cognitive task. Other problems include students who never get past reporting partners' content, rather than form, and students who notice the same things over and over. But these are problems with student behavior, not with noticing itself.

Despite these problems, the activity engages and motivates learners, improves fluency, but doesn't ignore accuracy. Students enjoy using conversation strategies; timed practice enhances classroom management and keeps students in "English only." Noticing makes learners aware of their mistakes and successes, and helps them learn from their partners. Overall, students (87%) felt that the activity improved their English conversation ability, and 84% said they enjoyed English more than before because of the class.

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# Amaterasu and the power of dance in the classroom.

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> One day, Amaterasu, the goddess of light, retired to a cave in anger, thus plunging the world into darkness. In order to lure her out, another goddess mounted an overturned tub, bared her body and danced vigorously while the other gods sang and beat time. Intrigued by the laughter and shouting, Amaterasu came out and joined them, thus ending her self-imposed exile and bringing light back to the world. The gods, having discovered the pleasure of performing and watching dance, passed their accomplishment on to man. *(Japanese myth )*

Can the power of dance have a similar enlightening effect in the language classroom? Although this gift from the gods is pervasive in everyday life, we tend to think that dance has little pedagogical significance. But the imaginative use of dance can provide solutions for seemingly intractable pedagogical problems and provide new dimensions for language learning both in and out of the classroom.

## "The wall of silence"

Most new EFL teachers in the Japanese classroom are greeted by the "the wall of silence," a reluctance to speak, conditioned by educational and cultural norms against immodesty of the tongue (Wierzbicka, 1994). Prohibitions against verbal immodesty are captured in the Japanese proverb, "The nail that sticks up gets hammered down." Naturally, for the teacher schooled in the communicative approach, student reluctance to speak is a major challenge.

One way of confronting this challenge is to meet the students half-way, what Anderson (1992) calls "blending." Blending requires the teacher to discover the circumstances in which students are comfortable talking and then begin to turn those circumstances into communicative language practice. So, for example, knowing that students will happily read scripted dialogues to each other allows the use of various drama techniques which exploit mood and gesture, etc. My own particular approach to reconciling a communicative approach with the students' reluctance to communicate begins by exploiting their liking for choral drills.

## Choral drills and the communicative approach

It is somewhat paradoxical that the individually silent student can be forthcoming when asked to participate in a choral drill. Yet, in the choral drill, it is the silent who may be considered "the nail that sticks up." But drilling and the communicative approach are not easy bedfellows. Choral drilling still remains a technique in the communicative classroom but one that is used sparingly to give students functional control of a new language item. The communicative approach could never countenance the prominence of the drill in the Audio Lingual Method, where it was considered the key technique for instilling good language habits. And even though attempts have been made to develop communicative drills, these have tended to be more semi-controlled pair-work activities rather than choral (Walz, 1989).

However, a place can be found for choral drilling in the communicative approach if we take a broader view of the nature of communication. Several writers have described language in terms of functions, of which communication is just one. For Jakobson (1987), the poetic function of language is distinguished by the way words are selected and combined according to different axes, what he called the "projection principle." In the slogan, "I like Ike," like has been selected from the vertical or paradigmatic axis by virtue of its ability to combine with I and Ike to form a phonetic patterning on the syntagmatic or horizontal axis. First language acquisition is replete with examples of the poetic function in the form of rhymes, songs and chants. And this delight in the poetic function carries over to our adult lives as we spontaneously sing a few lines of a song, mimic an advertising jingle, or break out into a sports chant. The success of Carolyn Graham's (1978) infectious jazz chants is essentially due to their appeal to our poetic and rhythmic sensibilities.

But jazz chants are also communicative in ways not immediately understood by the notion of communication. Watching a Graham demonstration is watching performance art and any teacher who similarly performs in the classroom a song, a drawing, a story, or a mime, etc., will be aware of the heightened level engagement on the part of the student. Is this communication? Well, it certainly feels like it, especially if we can get our students to actively participate in the performance. If you have ever been to a dance class, you will know that learning a dance can be an exhausting process of watching a demonstration, listening to instructions, trying it out yourself, getting feedback, reflecting on the experience, seeking clarification, and then demonstrating that you have understood, and so on. As Widdowson (1984) has argued, the aim of the communicative process is to negotiate meaning by working towards a satisfactory convergence of worlds among interlocutors so that understanding can be achieved. And of course understanding can be demonstrated by actions as well as words.

## The importance of body movement in the language classroom

But research in cognitive style and non-verbal communication points to more substantive reasons why dance should be part of a language class. Gardner (1993) not only suggests that we are possessed of "multiple intelligences" but also that these intelligences may constitute preferred personalized learning styles. Asher's Total Physical Response (1977) is one attempt to exploit the powerful connections in memory created by combining language and actions. Furthermore, an increasing number of studies underline the importance of the body and movement in language. For example, Kendon (1979) has documented the synchronization of gesture and speech, Bolinger (1986) has highlighted the connection between body movement and intonation, and Acton (1984) has argued that breakthroughs in teaching pronunciation can be made through teaching the accompanying gesture/body movement.

## Seven reasons to dance

1. Dance in the language classroom provides engaging ways in which students can gain functional control of language by emphasizing phonological chunks, sentence stress and intonation, conversational rhythm, gesture and body movement.
2. Dance and gesture can combine to provide powerful kinesthetic connections for vocabulary development.
3. Dance can be used as a force to unify the community of the classroom and lower affective factors.
4. Dance has a power to transform our notions of classroom space by exploiting hitherto unused working space.
5. Dance helps expose language learners to the culture which underlies the target language. The dances I have used in class draw on a wide range of rhythmic sources: children's skipping or jump rope songs and rhymes, hand-clapping, sports chants, cheer-leading, etc.
6. Dance may allow students to get in touch with those rhythmic resources which played a part in the

acquisition of their first language and make these available for the kinesthetic learning of their second language.

7. And finally, by liberating language learners from the silence and stillness which pervades many language classrooms, dance helps prepare the body (and the mind) for the more cognitive demands of language learning.

## The dances

Here are just a few dances which will serve as examples of what can be done when drills are choreographed with dance steps.

### 1. *Can you/Could you?//Did you/Don't you?*

Introduce each item separately. With your left fist clenched, punch the air and shout [kIny ə]. Repeat with the right fist punching the air. Now raise both fists and repeat three times: [kInyə], [kInyə], [kInyə]. The clenched fist punching the air gives the chant the feel of a 'primitive' battle cry and emphasizes the modal / auxiliary plus subject construction as a phonological chunk. At first, students will not be aware that the sound they are yelling is "can you" but they will eventually cotton on. Then introduce the other forms in exactly the same way. Now get the students up in two lines facing each other. One line goes forward two steps, shouting [kInyə] with the left fist clenched on the first step and [kInyə] with the right fist clenched on the second step, and then moves forward more quickly three steps with both fists raised shouting: [kInyə], [kInyə], [kInyə]. The other line then moves forward shouting [dIdyə] in exactly the same way. Then the first line goes backward with [kUdyə] and then the second line goes back with [dont∫ə].

### 2. *Don't you like my jacket?*
### *I got it cheap at Macy's.*

This dance originated by taking an exuberant Latin type beat, a conga to be exact, and fitting words to it. Here hand-clapping, hip movement and foot-stamping drive what is essentially a substitution drill. The square floor pattern adds a further layer of group cohesion.

Use this dance after introducing clothes vocabulary. You need to use clothes with two syllables to begin with: "jacket," "trousers," "sweater," etc. Each syllable is given equal stress so that students can clap or stamp their feet to the beats conga-style. Use the name of a department store appropriate to the country you are teaching in. But make sure it also is two syllables. In Japan, I use the store "Uny," which is intended to be ironic because its clothes are cheap and functional and it is certainly not a store you would want to brag about. Practice the drill first with students in their seats. They can clap or stamp their feet on both syllables of the last word of each line: jacket [dʒæ-kIt], Macy's[me-sIz]. Continue as for a substitution drill. You can use other two syllable words: "sweater," jacket," and "trousers," but then as you run out of two syllable words you'll have to "turn" single syllable words into two. Practice this with the class first; for example, shöes [∫u-uz], shïrt [∫ə-ərt], etc.

Now get the students up. You can start of by getting them to do it without movement across the floor by stamping their feet on the two beats of "jacket" and "Macy's." Then put them in a circle - the best place to form a circle is usually around the walls of the classroom . They move forward two beats / steps and then stamp, clap or, better still, wiggle their hips on the two beat clothes words and store name. Now choose about five of your better students and arrange them and yourself into either two rows of three or three rows of two. Put yourself in the first row right position. You are going to move in a square formation and end up in the same position you started at. So, "Don't you like my jacket?" corresponds to one side of the box. "Jacket" marks the corner. Clap, stamp or wiggle on "jacket" and then turn ninety degrees and continue with the next side of the box which is, "I got it cheap at Macy's." Clap, stamp or wiggle on "Macy's" and then turn and continue with, "Don't you like my trousers?," which marks the third side of the box. Turn after "trousers" and do the last side of the box with, "I got them cheap at Macy's." You can continue making more boxes with other substitutions. Space permitting, you could build up this formation drill to the class as a whole. It's quite a thrill to get a formation team of students to chant and dance in unison and finish together where they started.

3. *Excuse me.*
   Can you tell me where the bank is?
   Excuse me.
   *Turn left. Turn right* .

Not only single utterances but whole conversational exchanges may serve as material for dance drills. This dance drill would ideally accompany a dialogue-build on directions. In this sense, the dance drill is a schematic form of a fuller, more natural conversation. Practice the first two lines with students in their seats. Drill the two-syllable reduced form of excuse me [skyuz mi]. Make it equal stress and pause between each utterance. "Can you tell me where the bank is?" also has equal stress on the last two syllables which also have the most prominent sentence stress. (di di Da di Da di Da Da) Start with "Can you" [klny´] and drill it as a phonological chunk as in dance drill 1 and then build up to the full phrase. Get students to clap or snap their fingers on the final two beats of "bank is."

Now get students up in a circle. First practice "Excuse me" [skyuz mi] (two beats). This is done as a kind of shuffle with the weight moving from the left foot to the right foot on each syllable. Now practice, "Can you tell me where the bank is?" (four beats). In contrast, this phrase has much more forward movement finishing with foot stamping/hand clapping on the last two beats "bank is." Now combine "Excuse me" and "Can you tell me where the bank is?" Do each line four times. The first line is a slow shuffling beat while the second is more of a strut. The last line is also quite boisterous. Have students raise their arms above their heads, turning them to the left and the right as they chant, "Turn left. Turn right."(two beats) Now you are ready to put the whole thing together. Remember to repeat each phrase four times. The whole thing now becomes an endless loop.

## Conclusion

What I have tried to do in this paper, is to tap into the universal delight in playing with words and movement, and use it for language learning. The real measure of the success of dance in the classroom is whether students will take away from the lesson a beat, a chant and a step, and in their own space and time break out spontaneously into these routines.

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# The Process of Revising Tests and Creating Parallel Forms

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## Introduction

Test reliability is important in both research and the development of educational curricula. Reliable test scores form the basis upon which other statistical tests such as correlations or ANOVAs are calculated; therefore, higher test reliability means subsequent statistical analyses will contain less error. Furthermore, a critical component of any educational curriculum is reliable norm-referenced tests, which can be used for measuring proficiency and making placement decisions. Essentially, understanding how to create more reliable tests provides the basis for teachers to improve their own or others' tests.

In addition to improving reliability, making parallel (statistically equivalent) test forms offers several advantages for researchers and language programs: first, parallel forms give further proof of reliability; in addition, they can be used for pre- and post-testing; and finally, different forms provide increased test security for both diagnostic and proficiency testing.

This paper will discuss how to revise norm-referenced tests to increase reliability and how to create parallel test forms. The authors will illustrate this process using statistics from their research on the original forms of the 2,000 Word Level Test (Nation, 1983; Nation, 1990; Schmitt, 1993). In the present study, the original tests were administered to 496 Japanese students whose educational levels ranged from the first year in high school to the third year in university.

## Description and purposes of the 2,000 word level tests

Like Nation's and Schmitt's original 2,000 word level vocabulary test forms, the authors' revised test is a matching test that measures the breadth of the learner's vocabulary knowledge (i.e., a basic meaning of a word), but not the depth of that knowledge (Read, 1988). The following is an example of three items from one of the revised tests:

______ first
______ not public
______ all added together

a. royal
b. slow
c. original
d. sorry
e. total
f. private

Drawing from West's General Service List (1953), the answer choices are taken from the first 2,000 high frequency words, while the definitions are written using the first 1,000 high frequency words. Further information about the development of the original tests, which range from the 2,000 to the 10,000 word levels can be found in Nation (1990) and Read (1988).

Both the original and the revised tests would typically be used as criterion-referenced diagnostic tests or as one test in a proficiency test battery. In diagnostic testing, students' scores could be used to estimate the degree to which they knew the 2,000 word level vocabulary. In proficiency testing, the scores could be used as part of a battery of tests for admission to or placement at a certain level in language programs.

## The process of testing

### *Deciding the number of test items and test length*

Ideally, many of the initially developed test items will have a strong relationship with the skill being tested (Bachman and Palmer, 1996). Nevertheless, some items will not perform well; therefore, it is extremely important to start with twice as many items as are desired for the final test (Brown, 1996, p. 74). This will guarantee that there will be enough "good" items (defined in the next section) for the final version of the test. In general, highly reliable tests will be made up of approximately 30 or more good items; otherwise, it can be difficult to attain sufficiently high reliability.

Test length is thus an essential component in test reliability. The basic goal of most tests is to attain .90 reliability (Vierra and Pollock, 1992, p. 62). If the consequences for the test-takers are potentially great, for example, acceptance into a university, then longer, even more reliable tests (e.g., .95 reliability) will minimize measurement error and produce fairer, more professional results.

### *Piloting tests*

Once the initial set of items has been written, then the next step is to pilot the test. Piloting allows researchers to work out the logistics of administering their tests; in addition, it provides some preliminary information regarding the quality of test items. When piloting a test, at least 30 subjects should take the test in order to be certain that the results are reliable.

In the present case study, a trial run with over 100 subjects revealed that less than 35 minutes was required to complete all 72 of Nation's and Schmitt's original items, confirming that the test could easily be given within a 50-minute class. The pilot study also pointed out some obviously bad items (e.g., ones which almost no one got correct). In some cases a single distractor accounted for the majority of incorrect answers, suggesting that the distractor had to be revised (see Brown, 1996, p. 70-74 on distractor efficiency analysis). In addition, it was also learned that the English test directions were sometimes not followed; therefore, the directions were translated into Japanese.

### *Determining item quality*

After data have been gathered from piloting the tests, the test items must be analyzed. This requires examining the relationship of individual items to the overall test as well as measuring the difficulty of each item and the ability of individual items to discriminate among high and low scorers.

The first point to consider is the relationship of individual items to the overall test. Ideally, the items and the test should be measuring the same thing. This is determined by checking the correlation results: there should be a positive correlation between each item and all other items on the test. This correlational relationship ($\underline{R}^2$) is referred to as the "squared multiple R" by statisticians.

A second expectation is that each item on the test should have a positive correlation with the total test score; this is referred to as either item discrimination or the item-total correlation (see Brown, 1996, p. 66-69). That is, any item that does not correlate well with the total test score is probably measuring something different from the test as a whole.

The following examples from form A of the original 2,000 word level test illustrates the effects of different squared multiple Rs and the item-total correlations on the reliability of the whole test.

Table 1
Statistics for Selected Items from the Original 2,000 Word Level Form A

| Item Number | Item-Total Correlation | Squared Multiple R | Reliability if Deleted |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | .42 | 28 | .78 |
| 2 | .48 | 29 | .77 |
| 3 | -.14 | .05 | .82 |

The closer a correlation figure is to zero, the lower the item's correlation is with the overall test. Clearly, item 3 correlates very poorly with the other items on the test and the total test scores. The negative item correlation value of item 3 indicates that low scoring students correctly answer this item more often than high scoring students; thus it is functioning quite differently from the rest of the test items and should be eliminated. Retaining item 3 lowers the test's reliability; however, deleting it raises the test's reliability to .82. Thus, items which perform poorly decrease a test's reliability, while those which perform well increase a test's reliability.

The quality of individual test items must also be checked by analyzing their level of difficulty and their ability to discriminate among test-takers. This is usually termed item facility (IF) and is used to check the percentage of students who correctly answer a given item. The formula for determining IF is to take the total number of correct answers for an item and divide that number by the total number of students who took the test. For example, if 100 students take a test and 27 of them get item 1 correct, you divide 27 by 100 and get an IF of .27, which means that 27% of the students got the item correct. In general, the ideal item has an IF near .50.

Closely related to IF is the ability of an item to separate those who performed well from those who performed poorly. This is known as item discrimination (ID). The formula for calculating ID is:

$$ID = IF_{upper} - IF_{lower}$$

For each item, the ID is calculated by subtracting $IF_{lower}$ (the lower third of the group) from $IF_{upper}$ (the upper third of the group). For example, if .60 of the students in the top third correctly answer an item and .20 of the students in the lower third correctly answer the same item, the ID is .60 - .20 = .40. ID statistics can be interpreted using the following criteria (Ebel, 1979, p. 267):

| | |
|---|---|
| .40 and higher | very good items |
| .30 to .39 | fairly good items subject to improvement |
| .20 to .29 | items in need of improvement |
| below .19 | items which need to be revised or eliminated |

In the case of the revised 2,000 word level test the 72 items from the original test were reduced to 54 items by discarding 18 of the original items that had lower item discrimination values. Even though fewer items appear on the revised test, the 54 items of the revised test had a reliability of .95, which equals the reliability of the longer 72 item test.

### *Test reliability*

After having analyzed each item, poorly functioning items should be eliminated or revised, re-piloted, and re-analyzed. At this stage the resulting test or test forms should have approximately 30 items or more each with an ID of .30 or higher. Once this is done, then the reliability of the test forms will need to be analyzed, and the most appropriate type of reliability formula must be determined. In the case of the 2,000 word level tests, in which the creation of parallel forms was one of the primary goals, both equivalent-forms reliability and internal-consistency reliability were considered to be appropriate. These statistical analyses underestimate the test's true reliability, so the results can be trusted as a conservative estimate of reliability (see Brown, 1996, pp. 192-203).

Equivalent-forms reliability requires that two different but equivalent forms of a test be administered to the same group of students. The scores of the two tests are then correlated and the resulting correlation coefficient can be considered as an estimate of the reliability of the test. However, it can be both difficult and time consuming to produce equivalent forms. To illustrate equivalent forms reliability, two forms of the 2,000 word level test were created (see the next section), and the correlation coefficients between the forms were compared and were found to correlate at .89. This is an acceptably strong correlation for two forms of the same test. In this case, the correlation coefficient ($\underline{r} = .89$) confirms the reliability that was determined by the internal consistency method, which had a reliability coefficient of .90 using the Cronbach alpha reliability formula. Reliability can be determined using any one of several common statistical formulas such as split-half reliability, Cronbach's alpha or Kuder-Richardson 20 (KR-20).

### *Writing parallel test forms*

Once individual items have been analyzed and selected for the final test, then the creation of parallel forms can begin. As mentioned before, 30 items per form is the ideal number; however, out of the 72 original items on the 2,000 Word Level Tests, 18 were determined to be weak, so the remaining 54 items could at best be made into two 27 item forms. Essentially, the 27 item forms were found to be the best compromise between test length and item quality, since adding more items would not have increased the forms' reliability.

Once it was decided to make two 27 item forms, individual items were then shifted between the forms to bring the means and standard deviations closer to each other.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics for the Revised 2,000 Word Level Tests Forms A and B

| | Form A | Form B |
|---|---|---|
| Number of Item | 27.00 | 27.00 |
| M | 19.90 | 20.06 |
| SD | 6.07 | 6.04 |

As table 2 shows, it was possible to create two forms with similar means and standard deviations. However, the next step is to show statistically that the forms are indeed of equivalent difficulty (Henning, 1987, p. 81). Three criteria must be met in order to demonstrate equivalence. First, there must be no significant differences in mean scores when the test forms are administered to the same population. This is established through comparing the means with a dependent t-test an ANOVA (Hatch and Lazaraton, 1991, pp. 287-294 and pp. 345-355). In the case of the 2,000 word level test, both forms A and B were used to confirm that the means of the two forms were not significantly different.

Secondly, one must show that there are equivalent variances (variance is standard distribution squared) between the forms when the distributions for the same population are compared with an F-max test (Guilford & Fruchter, 1978, p. 163). Again, the variances for forms A and B of the 2,000 word level test were not significantly different.

Finally, equivalent covariance (interform covariances) must be established by showing that there are no significant differences in correlation coefficients among equivalent forms or among correlation coefficients of equivalent forms with a third, established test (e.g., a concurrent criterion such as TOEFL). The correlation coefficients between forms A and B of the 2,000 word level test and their correlation with the full TOEFL test were found not to differ.

## Conclusion

In conclusion, the process of revising tests to improve their reliability and the creation of parallel forms starts with piloting them to make necessary adjustments in logistics, test items, and directions. Then, recalling that the goal is to retain approximately 30 items per test or test form and to attain a reliability of .90 or higher, the item quality needs to be analyzed. Individual items should have an item discrimination value of .30 or higher. At this stage, the reliability of the revised test or test forms should be calculated. Finally, parallel forms can be made, statistically analyzed, and revised in order to achieve equivalence.

Revising tests to raise their reliability and creating parallel forms have practical advantages for researchers and instructors who are involved in curriculum development. It is inevitable that tests, particularly when first developed, will have items which perform poorly and lower the tests' reliability. Out of fairness to the test-takers, it is important to make tests as reliable as possible. Discarding weaker items will not only raise test reliability, but will also reduce the amount of time needed for administering the tests. Finally, the creation of parallel forms allows for pre- and post-testing as well as improved test security by ensuring that test-takers who sit next to each other have different forms.

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# Continuous Assessment Facilitated by CAI

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This paper illustrates how multimedia computer software facilitated the continuous assessment of oral communication performance in classes of Japanese university students. With learners engaged in tasks, the teacher was able to supply pedagogic assistance and conduct testing. The validity of the criterion-referenced performance testing is covered. Also revealed is the relationship between communicative performance opportunities and proficiency as reflected in performance test scores.

## Background

A task involving role-play is one method of having learners demonstrate their communicative performance ability. The use of role-play has been covered by Underhill (1987), Hughes (1989), Seliger and Shohamy (1989). Another project (Painter, 1995) showed how learner-pairs requested testing using role-play after completing a unit of functionally-based language activity with computers. Role-plays, typically via an information gap, require participants to accomplish a task by exchanging information. The ability to do this can then indicate a level of proficiency in communicative performance. Underhill suggests functions as a basis of role-play situations. Concerning the test, Davies (1968) suggests that it should accurately reflect the underlying syllabus to satisfy his criteria for test content validity. Well documented functional outline sources are found in *The Threshold Level* (Van Ek, 1975) and Wilkins (1972, 1973, 1974, 1976). *The Threshold Level* was developed for the Council of Europe as an international standard level for language learning.

According to Bachman (1990), evidence to support the way a test is used can be grouped in three categories: content relevance, criterion relatedness, and meaningfulness of construct. Brown (1988) concurs with these categories. Morrow (1979) stresses the importance of content, construct, and predictive validity. Morrow values the use of 'performance tests' in the communicative context. He is concerned that performance be tested as an integrated occurrence, pointing out that testing discrete items demolishes this integrity.

Reliability and validity can be analysed through statistical studies. However, as Brown (1988) points out, of the two main categories of language test – norm-referenced and criterion-referenced – the latter is less accommodating to statistical study. A criterion-referenced test is typically used to measure what learners have achieved with reference to a criterion level which defines the ability objectives of a unit of study or of a course of study. It is therefore conceivable that if learners have succeded they could all score full marks. However, without a dispersion of scores, statistical methods have little use. As Bachman (1990) points out, reliability estimates depend on the amount of variability in test scores. For this reason, classical norm-referenced estimates of reliability are ineffective with criterion-referenced test scores.

## Purpose of Study

The current purpose was to illustrate how the continuous assessment of oral communication performance was facilitated using multimedia computer software (Milward, 1993). Concurrently, it was considered necessary to establish reliability and validity for the testing. A parallel purpose was to explore the relationship between communicative performance opportunities exploited by learners and proficiency as reflected in performance tests. The data was accumulated over a period of one academic year. Learner evaluation of the program is included.

## Outline of Learning and Assessment Procedure

During lesson time, learner-groups worked at their own pace and level, selected CD-ROM based video clips, predicted then practised communicative content, identified communicative aims, then employed them in self-created situations and requested assessment.

In Table 1.1 and 1.2, the two-level outline of course functions is displayed. For comparison, the six main function categories for the Threshold Level (Van Ek, 1975) are illustrated in Table 2, alongside the numbers of the present study units possessing corresponding functions.

The criterion-referenced performance tests, approximately three-minutes in duration, focused on the communicative aim and thus the functions of the unit. Twenty-five sets of role-cards outlined test situations and tasks, and embedded information gaps rendered communication meaningful. Successfully accomplishing the test task would signify achievement of the communicative aim and of a performance criteria. Each learner, in a pair of testees, received one of two role-cards. Testee pairs were synonymous with learner pairs and the task was acted out while the teacher listened and scored.

**Table 1**
**Outline of Course Functions**
**Level One**

| Unit | Title | Functions |
|---|---|---|
| 1-01 | Introduction | introduce self & discuss itinerary/ purpose, describe possessions |
| 1-02 | Information | express/inquire about wants/preference, inquire about availability & request further information |
| 1-03 | Food | express/inquire about wants/preference, inquire about availability & request further information & choose |
| 1-04 | Home | identify relationship/ownership, express pleasure/liking |
| 1-05 | Inclusive | ask about/describe occupation & offer/request refreshment |

**Table 1.2**
**Outline of Course Functions**
**Level Two**

| Unit | Title | Functions |
|---|---|---|
| 2-01 | Arrival | asking/giving personal information |
| 2-02 | Information | finding satisfactory accommodation |
| 2-03 | Hotel | checking-in/giving information |
| 2-04 | Restaurant | complaining |
| 2-05 | Bar | discuss intentions/plans |
| 2-06 | Estate Agency | describing location |
| 2-07 | Apartment | talk about lifestyle/accommodation |
| 2-08 | Appliance Shop | discuss habits/routines |
| 2-09 | Home | talk about a sequence of past events |
| 2-10 | Telephoning | discuss who you know/remember/forget |
| 2-11 | Telephoning | discuss quantity/duration/distance |
| 2-12 | Post Office | ask/explain procedures |
| 2-13 | Restaurant | compare/evaluate things done/seen |
| 2-14 | Clothing Shop | talk about wants concerning undetermined object/quantity/ person/place |
| 2-15 | Pharmacy | explain/advise someone with a problem |
| 2-16 | Home | talk of things done/seen |
| 2-17 | Bookshop | compare things/people/places |
| 2-18 | Cafe | talk about intentions/wants/desire, periods of time past/future |
| 2-19 | Bank | talk about getting things done/things already done/ accomplished |
| 2-20 | School | interviewing/talking about past/what was happening at a given time |

**Table 2**
**Comparison of Threshold Functions and Course Functions**

| | Threshold Function | Course Function Level 1 | Course Function Level 2 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | imparting and seeking factual information | 1, 4 | 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 16, 20 |
| 2 | expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes | 3, 5 | 10, 19 |
| 3 | expressing and finding out emotional attitudes | 2, 3, 4 | 2, 4, 5, 13, 14, 17, 18 |
| 4 | expressing and finding out moral attitudes | — | 4, 14, 17 |
| 5 | getting things done | — | 1, 12, 15, 19 |
| 6 | socialising | 1 | — |

The tests took the form of situations where learners played roles in particular settings concerning particular topics. For example, the situation in Level 2, Test 1 (Appendix A), put testees in the roles of: receptionist and patient, within the setting of: a hospital, and a topic of: seeking medical attention. To succeed the testees needed to perform the functions which had been practised, identified, and exponentially recreated during lesson time.

The scoring principle was indicated to learners in a procedure guide as follows:

1 communication was meaningful and grammatically correct: 2 points for each section
2 communication was meaningful but contained grammatical errors:1 point for each section
3 communication was meaningless: 0 points for each section

The scoring method attempted to reduce the number of items the assessor needed to keep track of during the test (Underhill, 1987). The method also attempted to reduce the need and influence of subjective judgment and help keep the functional target in focus. During a test the assessor would not be aware of the test status, i.e., first test or retest. Results were announced to individual testees at the end of the test.

## Method

### *Subjects*

Twenty-four mixed gender first year university learners enrolled alphabetically for one academic year with once a week class frequency totalling 26 classes (39 hours).

## Instrument & Procedure

### *Reliability*

Test-retest data, shown in Table 3.1, was examined for normal distribution, equal variance and linearity. Test-retest reliability (stability) was estimated using nine pairs of test scores from repeated tests and calculating a reliability coefficient with the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Intra-rater reliability would be indicated by the same correlation. Results appear in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.1**
**Performance Test-Retest Data**

| Level | Test % | Retest % | Interval in weeks |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1-1 | 80 | 80 | 2 |
| 1-2 | 60 | 70 | 1 |
| 1-3 | 80 | 70 | 15* |
| 2-1 | 100 | 100 | 2 |
| 2-2 | 60 | 80 | 15* |
| 2-2 | 80 | 90 | 15* |
| 2-3 | 80 | 90 | 11* |
| 2-3 | 80 | 90 | 11* |
| 2-3 | 100 | 100 | 11* |
| m | | 80 | 90 |
| SD | | 13.3 | 10.7 |

* = includes 10 week summer break

**Table 3.2**
**Performance Test-Retest Correlation**

| Dependent (X) & Independent variable (Y) | $r$ | $r^2$ |
|---|---|---|
| (X) Performance Test Scores & (Y) Retest scores: | 0.88 | 0.77 |

$p < .05$, $df = 7$.

*Validation*

1. Content validity, (a) the ability domain was based on the functional course outline; (b) test method facets (the setting and procedure) were evaluated, and (c) the degree to which test task represented the ability domain was evaluated. This evaluation was facilitated by the specific focus and limited nature of tests.
2. Criterion validity implies correlation with a validated test, and is here subsumed under construct validity.
3. Construct validity is operationalized with construct as: the proficiency to perform in a defined language function area. Learners in the current study were additionally given two cloze tests, one in each semester. Performance test score and cloze score scattergrams were examined for normal distributions and linearity, The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used and the results are shown in Table 4.

***Performance Quantity and Performance Score Correlation***

The two interval scales of performance scores and performance quantity (i.e. how many tests learners sought to take) were analysed for correlation. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used and the results are shown in Table 5.

***Evaluation***

An evaluation by learners was conducted at the end of each semester. Relevant anonymously supplied information concerning testing is presented in the results.

**Table 4**
**Performance Score and Cloze Score Correlation**

| Dependent (X) & Independent variable (Y) | $r$ | $r^2$ |
|---|---|---|
| (X) Performance test scores and (Y) Cloze: | 0.62 | 0.39 |

$p < .05$, $df = 22$.

**Table 5**
**Performance Quantity, Performance Score, and Cloze Score Correlation**

| Dependent (X) & Independent variable (Y) | $r$ | $r^2$ |
|---|---|---|
| (X) Performance quantity and (Y) performance scores: | 0.41 | 0.17 |
| (X) Performance quantity and (Y) Cloze: | 0.51 | 0.26 |

$p < .05$, $df = 22$.

## Results

### *Test-retest Reliability*

In the performance score test-retest correlation study (Table 3.1 & 3.2), the correlation coefficient $r = 0.88$, was significant at $p < .05$, $df = 7$. The coefficient of determination $r$ squared = 0.77. The estimate for intra-rater reliability results from the same correlation coefficient, $r = 0.88$. This correlation gives a significant, high estimate of test-retest reliability. Likewise intra-rater reliability is high.

### *Validity*

In the performance test score and cloze score correlation study (Table 4) the correlation coefficient $r = 0.62$, significant at $p < .05$, $df = 22$: A medium estimate of the correlation between two variables concerning construct validity.

### *Performance Quantity and Performance Score Correlation*

The correlation coefficient $r = 0.41$ is low and indicates a weak but significant relationship between the two variables at $p < .05$, $df = 22$. The correlation coefficient $r = 0.51$ between performance quantity and cloze scores is fairly low and indicates a weak to medium, significant relationship between the two variables at $p < .05$, $df = 22$. The coefficient of determination, $r$ squared, estimates the extent to which the two variables overlap; 17% and 26%.

*Evaluation*

Learners were asked specifically whether measuring their oral English ability in the computer laboratory was effective. Learners answered on a scale of 1-5, low-high estimate. First semester the means were 3.58, and second semester they were 3.79.

## Conclusion

Results of test-retest reliability and intra-rater reliability studies present high estimates suggesting tests were reliable. The correlation of performance quantity and cloze score also offers a fair estimate of construct validity. Along with content validity this suggests reasonable confidence in test validity.

That 17% of performance score overlaps with performance quantity may be grounds for further investigation. The estimated closer relationship, of 26%, in overlap between performance quantity and cloze sustains the possibility that performance quantity does support underlying aspects of proficiency.

From the perspective of testing, with an average of eight tests taking place per lesson in addition to pedagogic assistance, learners sometimes had to compete for the chance to test, possibly dampening the positive effects of autonomy. Nevertheless, learners benefited from immediate knowledge of their assessment rather than having to wait until the end of the semester. Further research could include self testing by learners, thus avoiding any impediment caused by the test event.

Whether the tests, following soon after practice, could measure assimilated ability, needs further investigation. However, learners' perceptions of the effectiveness of measuring their ability increased. Moreover, the washback effect of testing was positive.

## Acknowledgments

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## Appendix A

Level 2 Test 1

Student A:
You are Jess Brown, a photographer living in New York.
You ate some food in a cheap restaurant last night but now you feel sick.
You have just arrived at the reception of Central Hospital.
You would like some medicine.
L2 01

Student B:
You are Jo Francis, a receptionist at Central Hospital.
When new patients arrive you must get their name, address, profession and age.
You should then tell them to sit down and wait for the doctor.
L2 01

## *Section Four*
## Using Technology in the Classroom

# Concept-Acquisition: Tapping the Internet for Ideas

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## Introduction

The influence of electronic media on college English teaching has been greatly accelerated by technological innovations available through the Internet. What are these innovations, and why should we care?

First, some definitions: The Internet is a technology somewhat like a phone line that connects computers; the now-familiar worldwide web (WWW) is a popular protocol within the Internet that links data from one computer to another. Together, the Internet and WWW are the means through which we connect with new media for the L2 classroom: on-line texts, graphics, audio/video elements, e-mail, video conferencing, and the like.

As far as benefits of the technology, I want to suggest that the Internet and new media (a) grant students more turns for taking language practice, (b) promote a questioning mind and deeper processing of information, and (c) help bring about expanded cycles of learning. To spell out the *why* as well as the *how* of these benefits, it will be helpful to concentrate, first, on theory and, second, on practical examples.

## Theory?

A central challenge in adapting Internet media is to situate such practice within a lucid framework of language learning theory. By definition, current deployment of Internet-generated materials for language instruction is in its infancy. Nonetheless, language teachers' early experience with technologies like the Internet resonates with salient ideas debated among developmental psychologists, namely, the sometimes complementary and more often contrary influences of behaviorism and constructivism.

Behaviorist theories of B.F. Skinner (1968, 1971) are based upon learning as observable change (behavior). Change results from an individual's response to environmental events (stimuli), and this behavior produces overt consequences such as defining a word or solving a discrete problem. When stimulus-response (S-R) patterns are reinforced (rewarded), the individual is conditioned to respond. S-R approaches for teaching L2 foster repetition, memorization, and "response" to bits of language — isolated words and phrases or stand-alone passages often divorced from applicable situation or purpose. Limits to rote memorization and decontextualized response notwithstanding, behaviorist approaches achieve defined goals according to measurable criteria like maximizing the mean performance of a class and minimizing its performance variance (Atkinson, 1972). Accordingly, teaching and learning processes can be rationalized into replicable syllabi and tests.

It is important to note that S-R and operant conditioning (OC) are at the very roots of first- and second-generation computer-aided instruction, and, in fact, continue to pertain to pedagogy generally and, more specifically, to applications of electronic media in course design. OC, for example, is widely used in programmed learning, and hence it is commonplace in educational computing. OC occurs in graduated frames of question and answer; learners receive immediate feedback; questions are arranged so responses are likely to be correct and thus positively reinforced (Markle, 1969). This practice can be concatenated into drills, dialogues, scripted routines, and so forth. The learner "graduates" into longer and longer frames of OC, for example, covering a whole textbook.

Behaviorist approaches work in initial stages of L2 development, but behaviorism as a psychological theory cannot account for cognitive development in L2. More important, behaviorist approaches cannot inform us on how to move from a focus on language to a focus on concepts, the language-based building blocks of cognition and psychological development. For this, we turn to constructivism.

To envision the constructivist approach, imagine the learner engaged in practices that do not reward or punish isolated responses, but require the learner to figure out what she or he needs and then to proceed "constructing" ways to do it, making meaning from stimuli by way of prior experience (Bruner, 1990). Lev Vygotsky refers to this meaning-making as "internalization," a theoretical figure that moves the notion of language development far beyond passive intake or memorizing (as typified by behaviorist theory). Vygotsky also uses the term "transform" — that is, the learner transforms a stimulus, such as a new vocabulary item, from the social setting where it originates (Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1985). The learner thus internalizes vocabulary, for example, by way of both constructing its content and reconstructing its social form.

Further, the learner internalizes both content and form — taking in the meaning of a vocabulary item, to extend our initial example — by way of creating a "best guess" approximation of its meaning. The learner does this by (a) cross-referencing the item with other acquired items (constructing content) and (b) placing the vocabulary item within a range of potential concepts, taking contextual clues from the social setting (reconstructing form).

### What about the Internet?

Materials culled from Internet media constitute an ideal point of departure for constructivist approaches that invite concept development. In the case of college classes, one way students can break with their overly-conditioned patterns of memorizing is to become immersed in subject matter like literature, economics, business administration, medicine, etc. Here, Internet-generated materials can be flexibly arrayed to engage students with topics and cognitive tasks relevant to students' professional futures. Such an immersion elevates pedagogy from mere language training to the cultivation of language for acquiring new concepts.

To define "concept" informally, the term incorporates far more than learning vocabulary. Rather, a concept is a matrix of associated meanings and experiences enriched by language, practical tasks, and other mental operations. With regard to acquiring new concepts, through judicious use of data gathered from Internet media, teachers and students can avail themselves of material to "construct" appropriate subject matter. In aggregate, subject matter can be pitched toward higher level inquiry, or, internalization and acquisition of concepts, by keeping in mind the following hypothesized axioms related to constructivism.

1. Ideally, learning activities provide multiple perspectives of content (Spiro, Feltovitch, Jacobson and Coulson, 1992).

2. Activities avoid oversimplifying content — but support context-dependent knowledge (Spiro and Jehng, 1990).

3. The use of case-based instruction emphasizes internalized construction of concepts (Jonassen, Ambruso and Olesen, 1992).

4. The deeper the processing — the better, that is, activities should incorporate visuals and other aids for making associations (Craik and Lockhart, 1972).

5. Activities should encourage the SQ3R formula: surveying, questioning, reading, recalling and reviewing materials under study (O'Neil, 1978; Schmeck, 1986).

I'll set aside generalized accounts of how these axioms and corollaries are quite commonly in play in the Internet classroom — corollaries such as how learning activities via the Internet trigger collaboration and provide learners with the "glue of physical context" (Eggebrecht et al., 1996). But as I continue with samples of my own experiments using Internet-generated materials, I will refer to many of these points.

## Cases in practice

Earlier I proposed that the Internet and new media, such as e-mail and online texts, help promote a questioning mind, increase students' participation, and widen and deepen cycles of learning — cycles that might incorporate, for instance, reading online texts, journal writing via e-mail, the teacher's and others' reading and commenting on journal entries online, in-class discussion augmented by Internet graphics and/or video conferencing, and so on. Internet-generated media encourage higher mental processing, then, via a dynamic mix of elements, a toolkit of interactivity to help students learn more. In this context, the basic teaching tool for the English classroom is the online text whose advantages may include not only reading matter, but also the mix of video/audio and other elements to enrich and increase ways to encode text, as well as rapid access to associated data that can be searched, updated, and used for other purposes.

When we access the Living Arts section of *The New York Times* <http://www.nytimes.com>, for example, we and our students can partake of cultural information from North America that would not otherwise be available for our immediate and collective perusal. Imagine choosing one article of dozens available any day, an article that contrasts heroic stereotypes as portrayed in recent film releases. This topic might work for a humanities class dealing in mythology, film narrative, cross-cultural analysis, etc. Since this is an online text from a major newspaper, it offers more than contrastive rhetoric. It also supplies us with dynamic graphics (stills from the films under discussion), links to related articles (that is, fast access to other reading matter via the Internet), and videos (action clips featuring the characters written about in the article). All of these elements, the online text, graphics, links to other texts, and links to videos constitute a unit of interrelated data to deepen our engagement and increase ways for us to encode the essential information.

Regarding my recent experience teaching via the Internet, I will refer to a set of files or texts I developed over the last year by, among other means, gathering and adapting materials procured on-line. That is, I have compiled files of information for teaching and learning via the Internet, and in turn, via the Internet I have "published" these files, which are accessed and read (and available for appropriation and adaptation) by my students and others worldwide.

Let me set up my teaching strategy by sketching some background. I work with bright second-year medical students. They come to class in groups of 25 with some experience using a computer — some have a great deal of experience — though very few have done much computing in English. In terms of computer resources, they and I work in a newly equipped lab where the ratio is approximately two Macintosh computers for every student.

In brief, the text I designed, "Topics in Medical English" <http://interserver.miyazaki-med.ac.jp/~Kimball/med/1.htm>, is for highly capable undergraduate doctors-in-training. My objective has been to expand the traditional focus on technical vocabulary in order to include more substantial subject matter — more substantial linguistically and intellectually. I developed topic categories with the aim of having students use English to think medically, to become more analytical and to conceptualize in clinical contexts. Thus, the topic areas balance technical data, such as anatomy, with clinical narrative and case-study to increase ways for students to encode the technical information, and transform it into richer and better integrated conceptual understanding.

When students confront a technical file like "Anatomy of the Elbow," they find specialized data, vocabulary, supportive graphics, and text. The text becomes animated by students' following the link to a subsidiary text on "Tennis Elbow," a clinical scenario detailing a reality-based context to encode vocabulary and apply anatomical information. In sum, students move from skeletal vocabulary, the bare bones (conceptually and literally), to a detailed description of a human condition! In this way, processing technical information that may have led students to mere memorizing leads to analyzing data more deeply and more flexibly.

Similarly, a file on cardiovascular vocabulary leads to case-based "Heart Topics," articles that extend the lexicon so that students can start to apply vocabulary to context-defined problems. These "Heart Topics" feature a variety of files, such as the following "Women's Issues": changes in cholesterol during post-operative rehabilitation, gender and therapy, the estrogen factor, etc. Students not only read these articles, they also follow links to other data associated with these topics. Their reading of the Internet texts is supplemented by numerous opportunities to internalize the content and contextual form of the information they are trying to comprehend. These opportunities include frequent turn-taking in class discussion and debate, shared dialogues in the review of texts (fact-checking, for example), and impromptu group-conferencing while writing up their findings from texts and discussion. As well as encouraging greater cooperation among students — collaborative invention of a sort — the Internet-assisted cycle of reading texts, discussion, and writing offers students more L2 practice and, over time, creates social and physical contexts for them to better acquire concepts in L2. Additionally, in the process of probing data mediated by the Internet, students reveal to themselves how knowledge is constructed — that is, by the very flexible means they are deploying to master concepts under review.

## Conclusion

With respect to college English, the key behind the Internet and the new media is a teaching and learning environment ripe for internalization, an environment where each student develops a more questioning mind, fostered by multiple perspectives of the form and content of cognitive tasks. The inquiry-based classroom, in this sense, becomes the "robust" connection to the Internet. It follows that the teacher takes on new roles as media-specialist and pilot-and-curator of data in appropriate forms. Here is an example of such piloting, suggestive of one future outcome of college language teaching, although this is not an account of an L2 class, but of an engineering class at Rensselear Polytechnical Institute:

> Instead of large lectures supplemented with tutorials and labs, students attend each class for fewer hours per week, but in smaller, more concentrated sessions. Professors monitor students working together on computers, breaking to give minilectures when students get stuck on the same problem. The goal is mastery of concepts, not memorization of a body of knowledge. (Arenson, 1996)

Many of us will soon be moving our English classes into the computer lab, or, alternatively, moving computers into the English classroom. Even now, though, we can take advantage of the Internet — with or without direct student access to computers. In instances where computer availability is limited, teachers can provide students with "hard copies" of valuable data assembled and organized for concept mastery. When our classes incorporate strategies such as this, whether or not teachers and students tap simultaneously into the Internet, we are tapping into a new mindset, one whose aim is to transform information into conceptual understanding.

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# Making Reading More Manageable — The Choice Offered by On-line Newspapers and Magazines

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Among material available from the developing resource of the Internet is a profusion of on-line newspapers and magazines, many of which are offshoots of printed forms. Others, however, are unique to the Internet. This article will focus on the ways in which they can be selected and adapted for use with classes, especially at university level. It will look at the ways in which manageability can be enhanced, both in the sense of making reading more approachable and less difficult to handle, and in the sense of easing the organisation and integrating of activities.

Before looking at the sources themselves, the background to university teaching should be briefly considered. University classes must try to successfully combine an increase in language competence with a broadening of knowledge and outlook. Large classes inevitably bring with them a range of abilities and of interests. Catering for these requires a striving to offer students as much choice as possible, hopefully allowing the situation where, in the words of Simmons, Yonally & Haig (1996) it is possible to "bestow some of the benefits of smaller classes by breaking them down into manageable and knowable subunits" (p. 268).

Large classes, therefore need to be offered choice where it is often absent. Well, how about coursebooks? Do they not offer quite adequate sources of reading material? Obviously, they have much to offer, but usually do not provide a degree of choice at any one point, lack a great enough concern with giving opinions and with communicative follow-on activities, and can be very time-sensitive when handling news and current affairs related issues. On-line sources can offer advantages in these areas and furthermore provide greater choice merely by countering the "textbook fetish" referred to by McAlpine (1995).

Additionally, before looking at such sources, it is also important to consider why choice is so paramount. I, perhaps like many other native-speaking teachers in Japan, read relatively little in Japanese. When I do, mainly in the area of a specific hobby interest, it appears to be because several factors are present. These aid both processing and motivation. Firstly, the material is only available in Japanese. Secondly, content schemata are more easily activated, as there is a good level of background knowledge of the topic. Thirdly, formal schemata are also more easily activated, as there is good knowledge of the genre type. While perhaps not all of these factors can be supplied in the large class environment, at least they need to be aimed for. As Horibe (1995) has reiterated, reading is "a highly complex and sometimes roundabout problem-solving activity, in which all pieces of information, from knowledge of vocabulary and grammar to knowledge of the topic, must be brought into play" (p. 181).

Horibe has also focussed on the processing strategies of his students. Models of such processes have progressed from earlier diametrically opposed "top-down" and "bottom-up" models to more interactive syntheses. However, his research confirms expectations that bottom-up processing dominates among his students, even among those who make the greatest use of top-down processing. Obviously, the potential to develop a greater focus on the latter and a comparative reduction in the former is also going to be desirable when considering the merits of reading material from on-line newspapers and magazines.

How can the myriad of sources be selected? While, as will be shown, students themselves can play a prominent role at the stage of choosing specific articles, the watchwords at the earlier stage of choosing sources themselves are "breadth" and "accessibility." Breadth through choosing sources offering a wide range of articles, thus allowing as wide a choice as possible from among those. Accessibility through choosing sources which are accessible to students, in terms of interest and level of difficulty; and accessibility, in terms of time taken to physically access and download the material. The Internet is often touted as representing a democratic repository of material from sources large and small, under threat from censorship and commercialization. Still, the major established sources win. At the risk of contributing to even greater domination of the media by "barons," it has to be admitted that such sources are buoyed by the greater ease of their connections, which give the all-important faster accessibility. They also provide a range of material which allows a library of a wide range of interesting articles to be steadily built up in readiness for use, rather than necessitating too many last minute searches for something relevant. They do, however, also provide useful and comprehensive search facilities.

The choice of articles themselves is all-important. While, from the point of view of activating content schemata, it is perhaps ideal for students to have a high degree of choice in the articles they read, this may not be possible unless extensive self-study facilities are available. A balance has to be created to pay heed to Silberstein's (1994) warning that "one might assume that students can therefore read only what they know. This is not the case. It would be a disservice to rob students of the opportunity to learn through reading" (p. 8). As I will show, reading would however seem to be more successful when it impinges on one or more areas of students' interests.

Therefore, it is helpful to carry out surveys both before and after reading. These can usefully start back with attitudes towards reading in general. My survey of 3rd and 4th year students found that reading a book (18%) and reading a magazine (36%) compared with watching television (46%), as their first choice activities, given some spare time. Among sixty 2nd year students starting a Media English course, only sixteen (26. 5%) answered that they ever read newspapers in English. Less than 8% of a group of seventy-nine 2nd year Technical English students had ever read scientific journals in English and additionally considered writing more important than reading as a skill for improvement. However, as more than half of the journals in the library of this particular university are in languages other than Japanese, there would seem to be some likelihood of circumstances and views changing. More specifically, a survey of relative levels of interest in different technologies among these same students gave some pointers for potentially appealing articles.

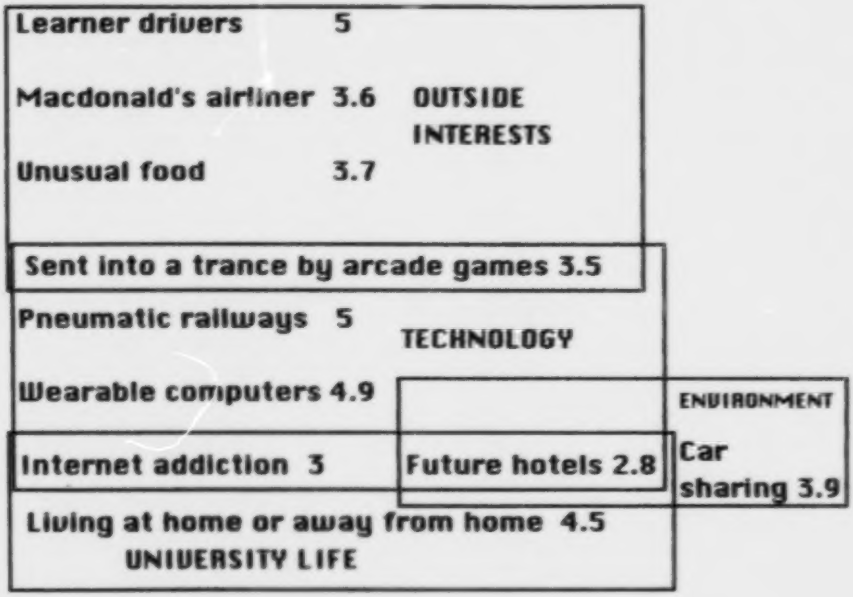
The constraints on choice which can be offered to large classes where Internet access is in the hands of the teacher must be acknowledged. However, she or he can provide a certain level of choice, to a degree absent from coursebooks. This can be through perhaps offering a choice from three different but related articles or through a choice from a greater number, either on the same theme or different themes, and delivering them in the following lesson to match demand. A degree of relationship between the articles, whether they are on the same theme or not, is most useful in facilitating the kinds of follow-up activities which will be referred to later.

Taking articles used with a group of 3rd years in this current academic year, what were the criteria in their selection? As stated elsewhere, the chief requirement was to both activate background knowledge and also to extend the range of these students' knowledge, outlooks and viewpoints. This was largely sought for by looking at familiar topics in different environments. These topics can be grouped within four categories: environment, technology, outside interests and university life. The latter two categories are obviously applicable to university students in general. Technology is particularly applicable at this university, which specialises in its various fields, and environmental material is admittedly selected as an area which demands input, not least to balance the previous category.

Figure 1 illustrates these categories with the themes of each specific article. While it is not immediately apparent that a different environment is concerned, examples are "Macdonald's airliner" (Switzerland), "Car sharing" (Scotland) and "Future hotels" (USA/Poland). As indicated before, it is important to survey students' interests both before and after material selection. While individual articles have also included feedback questions on such views, Figure 1 indicates a more overall and cumulative view. Students in this group were invited to rank as many of the ten articles as they had read, with 1 being given to the most interesting, 2 to the next most interesting and so on. Therefore, those with lower scores were the more positively received. While there were obviously differences from student to student, the one with the lowest score is "Future hotels. " Perhaps the brevity of this title fails to explain that it is about a competition held for students from various countries, including the two named above, to design an innovative hotel. It was necessary to combine innovative technology with imagination and a strong concern for the environment. As recognized in the figure, it encompasses three of the categories. Additionally, it can be seen that those which encompass two categories are also those which receive the next most positive feedback. To an extent at least, it seems to show that the more areas of interest are impinged, the more positive the appeal.

As well as offering greater choice, online sources also provide the opportunity for both editing and highlighting text. While editing may seem attractive, particularly to reduce the reading load contributed by length, it must be exercised with care. Halliday and Hasan's (1976) concern with the "texture" and the "unity" of text (p. 1-2) acts immediately as a warning. Reducing length may also destroy helpful redundancy, where ideas and information are clarified and reinforced. In addition, the writer's intentions may be effectively corrupted, as opinions and message are weakened or distorted. In contrast, editing gives the opportunity to lower the students' high processing load. This can be achieved through some reordering of less than logical texts and the editing of complex extratextural references. Reducing length may also allow a sharper focus through facilitating a more in-depth understanding of a shorter text, rather than students having to resort to a less than positive reliance on large-scale skimming. Finally, material from on-line sources can be more easily and rapidly adapted and split to produce integrated follow-up activities and informa-

Figure 1 - Levels of interest in articles used from on-line newspaper and magazine sources (3rd year university students).



tion gap tasks.

Similarly, the opportunities to highlight text are both simplified and enhanced. Colour can be added or, more economically, use can be made of underlining, italicising, and the computer's range of fonts to provide guidance to students. Such direction can be achieved through highlighting sections of text to give a clearer indication of article layout or through highlighting directional items such as conjunctions. As with editing, such means may be open to criticism as providing a form of crutch which would be difficult for the student to throw away when eventually dealing with unsullied material. However, the diverse factors and heavy cumulative load involved in processing during reading have already been indicated, as has the degree of unfamiliarity of authentic reading sources among university students. Support for such load reducing measures as editing and highlighting is provided by Davies (1995) who considers that, "when extra time is used for visual processing or word identification, there is less time available for attention to other sources of information, such as semantic or background knowledge" (p. 71). More specifically in relation to highlighting, she notes the Graphic Outline system (p. 151), developed in Australia to ensure that students study the actual arrangement of a text in advance. Highlighting can certainly achieve this.

Reading does not exist in a vacuum within a course. While reading material from on-line sources may mainly take place as homework, follow-up class activities need to be integrated. When opinions are stressed as the focus of responses to the articles, follow-up activities can be organised and integrated more smoothly. Firstly, the ability to more easily offer several articles means that activities can be built around students explaining and exchanging information about their respective articles. Facilities provided by some on-line sources for feedback by e-mail also mean that other readers' opinions can be discovered and students' opinions sent. Secondly, jigsaw and information gap activities can be more rapidly created by the greater ease of editing and adaptation explained above. At the simplest level, a longer article can be split into two more manageable halves, with perhaps both retaining the introduction and conclusion. Students can then work together to fill each other in.

Criticism may be levelled both that the Internet is not being used to its full interactive potential and that not enough advantages are offered over traditional printed sources. While the Internet already offers or potentially will offer wider capabilities, I am looking at it from the viewpoint of one of many who teaches courses with large classes and limited contact time. In this environment, no aspect can be allowed to dominate time to too great an extent and the element of face-to-face communication has to be preeminent. Similarly, there is a need to encompass exposure to a range of types of both discourse and genre and articles from newspapers or magazines, whether from traditional printed or on-line sources, can only occupy so much time. As to a final comparison between those two sources, quite apart from the greater capabilities to edit and highlight referred to, on-line newspapers and magazines provide the opportunity for a far wider range of material in non-native speaking and publishing locations. Once there is already provision of computing facilities, this material is both more economical and more timely.

Opportunities for future development are primarily provided by building up facilities for greater choice, both through access to libraries of material collected from on-line sources and through greater provision of self-access facilities. Such self-access facilities give students a greater say in the choice of material and offer more opportunities for them to suggest and offer material to be used in courses. Perhaps they will also have the time and patience to pursue and discover the more esoteric sources and make that aspect more manageable too!

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# Computerized Test and Material Production

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## Introduction

Most teachers prepare material for their classes to supplement or even replace a commercial textbook. The ability to use material customized for the students' needs and teacher's style easily justifies the time spent in material preparation. Information technology is progressing rapidly and this provides ever-changing options in producing and storing class material. While once the pride of an organized teacher might have been a file cabinet full of typo-free ditto masters, now we can store a drawerful of handouts on a single floppy disk, ready to print out and copy for class. But computers have the potential to do much more than merely replace a filing cabinet. I'd like to describe a further step away from the "file folder" model of material production and storage.

## Spreadsheets

A spreadsheet program provides a flexible way to initially put material into a computer. Spreadsheets can rearrange and combine elements in ways that word processors can't. As computer technology advances, the programs and procedures that I use will change, and different systems require different steps to achieve the same results. Therefore the discussion here will be in general terms, though my experience as a Macintosh owner using Microsoft applications may show through. I hope these ideas will help teachers develop processes that work with their own systems.

A spreadsheet appears on your screen as a grid of small rectangles. Each rectangle is a cell. Anything can be typed into a cell. Rows are horizontal lines of cells, columns are vertical lines of cells. Spreadsheets are usually used for mathematical calculation, but they can handle text as well. When text from a spreadsheet is imported into a word processing program, the contents of the rows will be separated by a return, or line-ending keystroke. The contents of each cell on a row will be separated by a tab. These settings can be changed and may be different in some programs. After learning to visualize the results of importing to a word processing program, typing into a spreadsheet is as straightforward as typing into word processing document.

The advantage of a spreadsheet is its ability to rearrange elements by cutting, copying, pasting and sorting. These are ways of moving sections of text. The first three can be done in a word processor by selecting text and manipulating it. The process is the same in a spreadsheet, with an important difference. In word processing, the selected area must be consecutive text (as one reads), while in a spreadsheet the selected area can be adjacent in a left-right or an up-down direction. Therefore, one can enter different types of data into different columns and create a page with any combination of types by cutting, copying and pasting.

Sorting is rearranging the order of the cells according to the contents of a specific row or column. My vocabulary material spreadsheets are set up with one word per row, so I always sort by row. When entire rows are selected and sorted by a column, the rows move as a unit, so the elements of the rows don't get mixed. Either a portion or the entire sheet can be sorted. The programs sorts into numerical or alphabetical order, depending on the contents of the column that the rows are sorted by.

In my spreadsheets, the words are grouped into units, and one of the columns contains the unit number. When I sort the rows by that column, the units are brought together. Another column has the part of speech. When I sort by that column, all of the nouns, verbs, etc. are brought together. Sorting by a column of random numbers will randomize the order of the rows. By consecutive sorting, you can obtain something such as "a random selection of the nouns from units 6-10." Select the rows of units 6-10 and sort them by part of speech. Then select the nouns and sort the rows by the random number column. Take the top 5 or 15 or however many you need. Sorting is a very useful function.

### Using a spreadsheet

I have used spreadsheets to make vocabulary material for several programs with different curriculums. I have a set of points associated with each word, all or some of which I can choose to make my students responsible for learning. My spreadsheets include the following elements, each in its own column: word, unit number, part of speech, definition, example sentence, opposite, synonym, associated preposition, preposition cloze sentence, cloze sentence, cloze sentence answer, open-ended question, and random number. I can use this spreadsheet in several ways.

First, I can use the text in the cells to make worksheets. The cloze sentences and open-ended questions can be grouped in the spreadsheet and then exported to word processing. They can then be pasted into a worksheet or formatted to make a new worksheet. Material from different units can be mixed by selecting rows from those units and sorting by the random number column. New items can be mixed with the old as they are written. As time goes by, the number of items grows, and it becomes possible to produce many different worksheets for each group of words from the same spreadsheet. It's not necessary to have each column filled for each word. Sorting by a column will bring all of the rows with filled cells in that column together.

Test items in a spreadsheet are the equivalent of a test bank. Tests can be made using the same procedures as worksheets. In my classes, the weekly quizzes are word/definition matching quizzes using the format of the levels tests in Teaching and Learning Vocabulary (Nation, 1990, Appendix 8, pp. 261-272). These quizzes consist of a set of groups of 6 words and 3 definitions, to be matched by the student (figure 1). I make these by grouping word/definition pairs from the desired units and mixing them by sorting by the random number column. Then I create the groups of 6 words/3 definitions by clearing the cells between the groups (to create a blank line) and deleting 3 of the 6 definitions. Then I alphabetize the words to eliminate the relationship between the words and definitions. I end up with a set of groups like the one in figure 2. I export these groups to a word processing program, adjust the tabs and print it. The advantage of using the spreadsheet is that a number of different quizzes can be made easily, but the words and definitions only have to be typed once.

Already written tests can be imported into a spreadsheet. The items must be adjusted so that they each occupy a single line in the word processing program, with tabs at significant points. This can be done by hand, but often the replace function can be used to automate the process. If this adjustment is made in word processing, the resulting spreadsheet will contain one item per row, and can be easily sorted.

I also use the spreadsheet to keep track of what the students are responsible for knowing about each word. Sorting by columns that contain opposites, synonyms, collocation etc. will bring all of these components together. I'll print this as a reference and use it when planning class or writing material.

### Conclusion

I have been happy with the usefulness of my spreadsheets. I have adapted spreadsheets created for one program in another by adding relevant information in new columns. I have used Japanese and English in the same spreadsheet. Recently I acquired a computer program that drills students as if they were using flash cards. The input to this program must be a text file in a specific format. I was able to easily arrange questions and answers from my spreadsheet into the required format. I would recommend experimenting with spreadsheets to any teacher with access to a computer. The greater initial effort pays off in the long term.

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**Figure 1 Sample Tests**

1 admire
2 colony ______ to respect and approve of someone or something
3 cup
4 explore ______ completely quiet
5 moon
6 silent ______ to learn about a place by travelling through it

1 dozen
2 operator ______ twelve
3 pleasant
4 relief ______ a feeling of happiness after an unpleasant feeling
5 throat
6 yield ______ enjoyable; nice

figure 2 Spreadsheet Sample

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | admire | |
| 2 | colony | ____ to respect and approve of someone or something |
| 3 | cup | |
| 4 | explore | ____ completely quiet |
| 5 | moon | |
| 6 | silent | ____ to learn about a place by travelling through it |
| | | |
| 1 | dozen | |
| 2 | operator | ____ twelve |
| 3 | pleasant | |
| 4 | relief | ____ a feeling of happiness after an unpleasant feeling |
| 5 | throat | |
| 6 | yield | ____ enjoyable; nice |

# Designing genre-based materials to use with videos

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## Introduction

Using videos in the classroom is widely recognized as an important resource for language teaching. The following is an account of a workshop in which participants drew on the influences of genre theory to examine how teaching materials can be designed for use with videos. First, the workshop was designed to show participants how high interest videos can be used effectively in the classroom. A surfing video, a feature movie video, and a rock music video were used. Second, it was designed to show how an understanding of genre and text structure could be of use to language teaching. A range of genres from high-interest videos were introduced and analyzed. Third, the workshop was designed to demonstrate the use of a variety of teaching materials. The following teaching materials were designed from the various video texts: matching activities for vocabulary, grouping activities for vocabulary, and box diagram activities for text structure. Finally, a discussion was conducted to examine the key issues that emerged during the workshop.

## Genre theory: a rationale

Genre theory has largely evolved from systemic linguistics (Halliday, 1985; Halliday & Hasan, 1985; Martin, 1985).

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Recently, in countries like Australia, it has become an important influence in language teaching theory and practice (NSW Department of School Education, 1994).

Genre theory is a functional view of language. It looks at how language enables us to do things for different purposes. The emphasis is on meaning rather than form and how language is involved in the construction of meaning. Therefore, language is seen as a resource for making meaning (Derewianka, 1990, pp. 3-4) rather than a resource for constructing syntactical rules.

Because meanings are found within a text as a whole (Derewianka, 1990, p. 4), genre theory focusses on the level of the text (Martin, 1985). Traditionally, syntactical approaches to language have focussed on the sentence-level. However, in genre-based approaches to language teaching, the text is regarded as being the basic unit of meaning (Derewianka, 1990, p. 4) and as such represents the teaching focal point.

A genre is a text that can be either spoken or written and can be described as a staged, goal-oriented, social activity (Martin, 1985). In other words, a genre is a text that has some kind of structure (or way in which its ideas are organized), has a purpose, and performs a social function in any given society. An example of a spoken text might be the dialog of a casual conversation. A written text, on the other hand, could be a newspaper report or a letter to a friend. Thus, teaching students how to construct effective spoken and written texts is considered to be important for real-world communication.

Genre theory also makes explicit the ways in which language is used for different purposes, e. g. , to inform, describe, argue, persuade, and so on. In order to achieve these different purposes, text structure (or the organization of the ideas and the language in a text) is important. For example, in an opinion text in English, we often start with a proposition, which is usually supported by reason(s), and then reiterated by a conclusion (Derewianka, 1990, pp. 70-71). This structure of language and ideas is considered to be appropriate for the purpose of getting an opinion across effectively in English. However, as the purpose changes, so too does the structure of the text. Hence, the text structure of a narrative genre or of a procedure genre is different to that of an opinion because the purpose of each is different. Thus the structure of a text (or its generic structure) is related to its purpose. Making students aware of the role of text structure and exploring how texts work (Derewianka, 1990) are regarded as important issues in teaching language as a form of communication.

In genre theory, the construction of texts is considered to be a culturally-specific activity (Halliday & Hasan, 1985). While many cultures need to be able to give opinions or explain how something works, how they structure their language to do these things can vary from culture to culture. For example, the way in which opinions are presented in the Japanese language and the Japanese culture are not necessarily the same way as they are in English (Lucantonio, 1996). Yet they are perfectly appropriate to the Japanese culture and the Japanese way of doing things. Genre theory makes explicit these culturally-specific ways in which language is organized to achieve different purposes. This is considered to be important for students when learning how to communicate in a foreign language.

## The workshop

### *Introduction*

Initially, five genres that were considered to be common in everyday language use were introduced to the participants (adapted from Martin, 1985, & Derewianka, 1990). These were then discussed in terms of the purpose of each and the generic structure of each (see Appendix 1).

Next, an example was given. An explanation text from an interview with a professional surfer was shown, explaining about violence in the water in Hawaii. Participants were then shown how a teaching material called a box diagram could be constructed based on an analysis of the texts generic structure (see Appendix 2).

Then, a second example was introduced. A song was played from a rock video featuring the popular rock band, *U2*. Participants were shown how teaching materials could be designed from an analysis of the songs generic structure. The teaching materials were: a matching activity for vocabulary (see Appendix 3), a grouping activity for vocabulary (see Appendix 4), and a box diagram activity for main points and generic structure (see Appendix 5).

The purpose of all the teaching materials, particularly the box diagrams, was to make explicit for students the construction of an explanation genre.

*Participants task*

The participants were then given four texts from the feature movie, *The Godfather (Part1)*. Each text represented a different genre from different segments of the movie. The genres were: a procedure, an explanation, an exposition, and a discussion.

In pairs, the participants were then asked to do the following:

1. Watch each video segment (twice) and identify the genre and the generic structure of each text.
2. Design a box diagram activity for each text based on the generic structure analyses.
3. Suggest additional teaching materials that could be designed based on the generic structure analyses.

*Discussion*

The following points represented the key issues that emerged during the discussion, upon completion of the workshop task.

In general, the participants were able to accurately identify the genre and generic structure of each text without much difficulty. They were also able to describe how box diagrams and other teaching materials could be designed based on their analyses. This would suggest that the participants were able to cope with the workshop task. Unfortunately, time did not permit the participants to complete the design of all the materials.

Most participants agreed that designing box diagram materials based on an analysis of text structure would assist learners to communicate for different purposes. They were seen as a useful way of keeping learners focussed and "to the point." By providing them with a structure for a particular genre, learners could recognize how to organize their language and their thoughts to achieve different purposes.

The discussion also focussed on the need to introduce key vocabulary and grammar to the learners before the box diagram activity. The matching and grouping materials were seen as a logical step before the more text-focussed box diagram activity. Furthermore, the participants agreed that they could clearly recognize the key vocabulary that was necessary to be taught (rather than every word) after an analysis of the texts generic structure.

The notion of using the text as a model for the task to be performed was also discussed. In a learner-centered classroom, providing students with whole, real-life tasks to perform is considered to be important in facilitating communication (Nunan, 1988, 1989). It could be argued that if students can produce a complete text then they are indeed producing a whole, real-life task. Designing teaching materials from a text analysis was then seen to be an effective way of providing learners with a model for both the language and the task to be performed.

Concerns were raised that the generic structure seemed to be too prescriptive and too rigid. It was suggested, however, that genre-based approaches are not about providing prescriptive recipes. Rather, they are concerned with providing information about the development of effective texts for particular purposes (Derewianka, 1990, p. 5). Genre-based approaches look for general patterns of language that are typical of a particular genre and not for hard and fast formulas (Derewianka, 1990, p. 83). It was recommended that teachers analyze a text for what they think it is doing rather than try to sqeeze it into a rigid formula. It was also mentioned that all texts are not model texts. While texts do have certain compulsory elements that help them achieve their purposes, some elements are more compulsory and more optional than others; therefore, there is a degree of flexibility in the way in which language and ideas are organized in a text. Furthermore, a text might be a mixture of genres, either deliberately or carelessly, and could include additional elements. However, using a text with a well organized text structure was seen by the participants to be important in providing learners with an effective language learning model. It was recommended that teachers should consider the structure of the text and not just the topic, when choosing texts to use in the classroom.

Finally, designing lessons around genres was seen as a useful way in selecting manageable and meaningful segments from a video. Knowing what to look for and what to choose from a video was considered to be an important issue by the participants. In this regard, identifying segments based on genres was seen as being a useful way of guiding teachers in choosing what to teach and how much to teach from a video.

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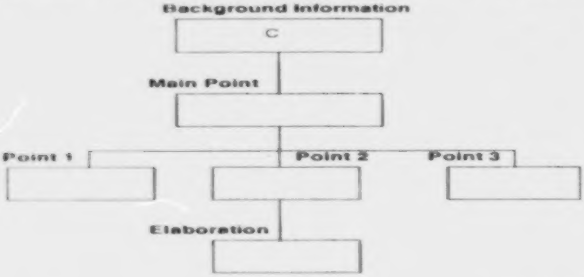
## Appendix 1: Five common genres

| Genre | Purpose | Structure |
|---|---|---|
| Narrative | To entertain; to tell a story | (Abstract) ^ Orientation ^ Complication ^Evaluation ^ Resolution ^ (Coda) |
| Procedure | To instruct how to do something | Goal ^ Steps |
| Explanation | To explain how or why something occurs | Phenomenon ^ Explanation sequence |
| Exposition | To persuade by arguing one side of an issue | Proposition ^ Reasons ^ Conclusion |
| Discussion | To persuade by arguing for and against an issue | Proposition ^ Reasons for Reasons against ^ Conclusion |

(adapted from Martin, 1985 & Derewianka, 1990)

## Appendix 2: Box diagram activity

1 Watch the video & fill in the missing information from below One is done for you



A

And whatever +ve or -ve
goes down there
it gets pubished

C

~~Well, crowds
are everywhere~~

E

and as far as a little
violent in the water,
I mean that shit goes on
all over the world

B

And sometimes magazines
publish a lot of bullshit

D

But for some reason, bullshit gets published
more in Hawaii because it's the surf capitol
of the world

F

But if 4 or 500 people
come to your surf break
how would you feel?

2 Using this structure, explain in your own words why there is violence in the water in Hawaii

## Appendix 3 : Matching activity for vocabulary

**Match the words on the left to the meanings on the right. The first 3 are done for yo**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 all can do | K | A problems are removed |
| 2 tear down the walls | | B love ends |
| 3 feel sunlight on my face | | C everybody is the same (equal); no labels |
| 4 take shelter from the poison rain | H | D disappears, ends |
| 5 streets have no names | | E change society |
| 6 flown on the wind | | F helping peace |
| 7 love turns to rust | | G become happy |
| 8 want to run want to hide | | H hide from war & hate |
| 9 building their burdens of love | | I escape |
| 10 dust coulds disappear | | J give my life some hope |
| 11 reach out & touch the flame | J | K I only want to do this |

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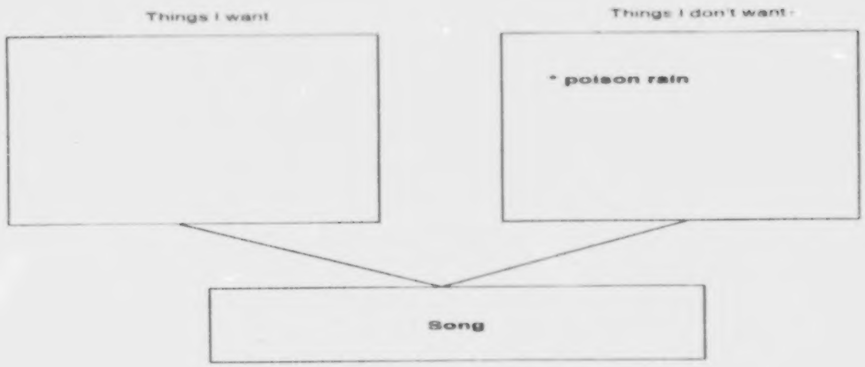
## Appendxi 4: Grouping activity for vocabulary

Place the words below into the correct group. The first one is done for you



~~poison rain,~~ love turns to rust; touch the flame;

burdens of love; the walls; street have no names;

dust clouds; sunlight on my face

## Appendix 5: Box diagram activity

1. Watch the video of the U2 song. Fill in the boxes with the information below. 3 are done for you

A. all I can do

~~B. tear down the walls~~

~~C. feel sunlight on my face~~

D. take shelter from the poison rain

E. streets have no names

F. flown on the wind

G. go there with you

H. love turns to rust

I. want to run, want to hide

J. building their burdens of love

K. dust clouds disappear

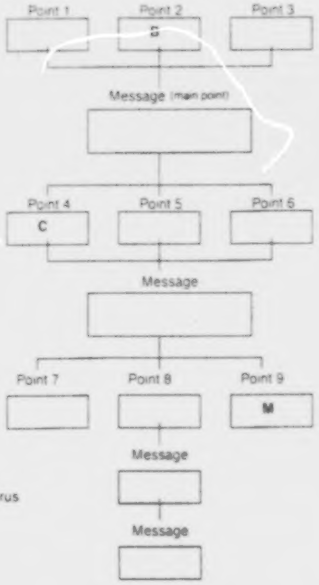
L. reach out & touch the flame

~~M. show you a place~~

N. city is a flood

2. Write a title for the song

3. In your own words, explain to your partner what the song is about. Try to include as many point as you can.



N.B.
Message = chorus
(main point)

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# Content Video in the EFL Classroom

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The growing acceptance of content teaching within EFL as a motivator for students has led in recent years to the creation of native speaker-taught content courses in the English language departments of many universities. While some universities restrict these classes to higher level students, many others are open to students at the intermediate level. Such classes are necessarily different from so-called content-based courses offered to ESL students in overseas universities. The latter are designed for intermediate and upper-intermediate students who hope to enter overseas junior colleges or universities. Brinton, Snow And Wesche (1989) have published useful guidelines for teaching EFL (or "sheltered") content-based teaching courses to foreign students studying in an English speaking country. But how can these guidelines be adapted to content based classes in Japan, in which only a minority of students in the class intend to study in an overseas university?

## Content Teaching in Japan

The reasons for the growing trend towards content teaching in Japan are too numerous and complex to discuss here. They are clearly evidenced, however, in the large increase in students who plan to study, or have already returned from studying, overseas. These students, as well as many others who hope to use English in their work after graduation, make up a small but significant minority of able and genuinely interested students capable of handling a content based course. It is thus now possible in many universities and colleges — most of which are now dismantling their General Education departments in accordance with Mombusho guidelines — to create genuine content courses or seminars, especially in the field of Area Studies. At the same time it is self-evident that these classes, made for a homogenous group of students living in their own country, cannot and should not be identical to those in a foreign institution itself.

Some useful general guidelines for designing and adapting content teaching methods used in foreign institutions to the Japanese university environment, are outlined by Halvorsen and Gettings (1996). The authors emphasize the "unique opportunities" that arise when teaching EFL students from the same cultural and linguistic background. In this environment, they suggest, it is particularly important to find an appropriate balance of content and language. In their effort to find this balance, the authors utilize a wide variety of non-traditional sources, such as posters, travel brochures, maps and magazine articles to stimulate interest in students who might not respond to a conventional textbook. Both also devote considerable time to developing mini-lectures at the appropriate level, and place an emphasis on project work and peer-edited written assignments. Video, too, is mentioned by the authors as an example of a visual component in their content classes, but the general nature of their article does not allow for a discussion of how to best make use of what may arguably be the single most important resource in content teaching in the L1 culture.

At its best, video can inform and stimulate students in a way that no lecture, however well delivered and thought out, can do. Indeed it seems self-evident that video could be an effective component of almost any content class. At the same time, however, its tendency to induce passivity in students, and the difficulty of adapting it to the EFL classroom, leave it wide open to misuse. Indeed even the most enthusiastic proponents of using authentic video in the EFL classroom would probably accept that the vast majority of material cannot be easily or effectively applied to classroom activity. Put another way, the selection process for choosing suitable authentic video and then adapting it to the appropriate level of the students is far from obvious, and is invariably both time consuming and unscientific. It is for this reason, of course, that commercially made EFL video courses are produced, although this material too, while linguistically appropriate, has many drawbacks, most notably its artificiality and amateurishness. Like any other skill then, using authentic video effectively in EFL, not only requires some experience in the basic techniques of video use and materials creation, but also demands a certain intuition and a knowledge of students' own educational background. While there is no short-cut to achieving this expertise, the following guidelines may at least help to lessen problems in the video selection and adaption process.

## Suggestions for selecting and customizing content videos

Most of the ideas outlined below are adapted from other academic disciplines, especially history and sociology. Students of these disciplines, however, are principally expected to absorb, analyze and process the information in the video. This information is often presented in the form of documentaries which frequently use historical or contemporary footage, together with interviews and explanatory narratives, in order to illuminate an event or help define an issue. Commercials, government propaganda and public service announcements are more commonly used in sociology or psychology, and in this case students are usually asked to analyze the images and words for their subtexts and assumptions, rather than their actual content. Yet, in both cases the main expectation of students is a written analytical report or verbal comments in a discussion setting. While some of these expectations may apply to an EFL content class in the L1 environment, several modifications are obviously needed if the video in question is to be useful both for language and content. These can summarized as follows:

### *Documentaries*

Documentaries should be used only if the visuals are dense, varied and can stand alone. In most cases they should have English or L1 captions. This would apply to most American documentaries, which have encoded closed captions, and also to some overseas programs shown on Japanese satellite television. In general, interviews should be edited out or considerably shortened and the total length of any segment shown should be less than a third of the total class time. Documentaries should be used largely as a supplement to a (text based) unit on a particular topic and students should have done some background reading or preparation on the topic before watching. This may involve activities built around the relevant vocabulary, but may also include an effort to activate the students' individual L1 schemata developed in their high school studies of this topic. Finally, and most importantly, interactive and communicative information gap activities and assignments, similar to those used in conversation or in some cases, in reading classes, should be designed for lower intermediate and intermediate students.

### *Movies*

Entire movies should not be shown in class, but carefully selected extracts from subtitled movies which deal informatively with a topic or issue can be edited and used as part of a larger unit. In addition, students can select from a teacher-approved list of movies with a strong cultural or historical content and watch it for homework over an extended period. Among the many assignments that could accompany this is a "movie notetaking" diary in which students take notes about what they have learned, both with respect to content and language. (Furmanovsky, 1994) Films should have either Japanese or English subtitles. Student "movie notetaking diaries" and carefully edited extracts from the films can be the basis for class activities.

*TV commercials*

Perhaps the biggest advantage of commercials is that they are relatively easy to find and prepare, in part because they are short, succinct , and, most critically for content teaching, often have have a cultural component. From a purely linguistic point of view, they frequently use idioms, expressions and double meanings which are of interest to students of colloquial English. Like any other video source, however, commercials have their limitations for content teaching. Relatively few commercials actually have a narrative or tell a "story." Finally the need to sell a product often tends to narrow the content and language of the commercial. Yet some commercials work extremely well in the content classroom because they reveal clear cultural differences in behavior or thinking and advertise something that would never be advertised in the students' own country, e.g. a political party or a certain type of product. Some commercials also refer to (and then sometimes make fun of) a stereotyped image or character from the L2 culture.

*Public service announcements and government propaganda*

Unlike commercials, public service anouncements do not sell a particular company's product or service. Usually made by the government or a non-profit organization, they give advice or information about an issue. Public service announcements can give an additional insight into the culture of the country in which they were made, since they sometimes reflect that culture's societal goals, as well as its sense of morality. Thus while they can be prepared by the instructor in much the same way as a commercial, students should be asked to focus on whom the announcement is aimed at and what behavioral change is being promoted. Government propaganda films, documentaries and old movies with clear stereotypes can be used to give insight into changes in attitudes towards issues such as race, alleged national character, women's roles, and a wide range of other issues. Since propaganda has usually been at its most extreme during war, video made during the era of the two world wars is particularly interesting for students. Some of these sources have been compiled in documentaries dealing with these issues, such as *Rosie the Riveter* (Women in World War II), and*Ethnic Notions* (Stereotypes of African-Americans).[1]

## Examples of Activities for Content Teaching Through Video

Since the content videos recommended here vary in almost every detail, suggestions for adapting them to the EFL environment can best be done on an individual basis, by category.

*Documentary*

*The Flapper*: This half hour highly visual documentary of 1920's American women who adopted the attitudes and style of the so-called Flapper was edited down to 15 minutes by removing most of the interviews used by the film makers. Prior to viewing this closed-captioned video, students read a two-page segment in an American junior high school textbook for homework. While watching, they are asked to note down how the Flappers differed from their Victorian predecessors, and are then given a multiple choice question which asks them what new habits or lifestyles of middle class women Flappers were illustrated in the video. Six correct and four incorrect (but plausible) answers are given. However, almost all of the answers can be derived from the visuals alone.

*Movie*

*Civilization* (D.W Griffith, 1916): This is an antiwar film made by D.W Griffith in 1916 at the time of the mass loss of life in the battlefield trenches of Belgium and France. A two- minute extract from the film is used in a documentary *(An Ocean Apart)* on British-American relations during World War I. No effort is made to go into the details of World War I in class, but a brainstorming session can be used to pool the students' background knowledge on the conflict, and this is usually sufficient to ascertain the basic information. Students watch an edited closed-captioned documentary (supplemented by a short lecture) on the lead up to U.S. intervention in World War I and the role of the early Hollywood studios and directors as reflectors of American public opinion. They are then told that they will see a movie made by the leading director of the day, at a time when most

Amerians and the U.S. President opposed any intervention. The movie deals with a war between two unnamed European kingdoms which represent two real countries. In the scene shown, there is an antiwar demonstration in one of these countries and the king puts the leader of this antiwar demonstration into jail. The king visits the leader in jail to make fun of him, but while mocking him, he has a vision or dream in which the antiwar leader becomes the ghost of Jesus Christ and guides the king through the battlefields of the war where so many people have died. The king now realizes his awful mistake and ends the war. Students are given three written interpretations of what the "message" or moral of this scene is and they are asked to choose the correct one. In order to do so, they must identify the image of Christ and interpret his gestures to the King. Some relatively difficult but short text (of the type usually found in silent films) also gives some clues. This exercise closely matches those that students might be asked to complete in a reading class, but the visual element considerably increases the interest and motovation level.

*TV Commercial*

*The Futureville Press* (1957): This was made by the National Manufacturers Association to promote car purchases and new highways in the 1950's. Featured in a documentary *(Taken for a Ride)* on the domination of the automobile in mid-twentieth century America, this is shown as part of a unit on the development of car culture and the decline of public transportation in the U.S. Students watch a black-and-white animated commercial set in the year 2000 in which a man leaves work in a futuristic flying car. He easily overtakes the few other cars in the same "lane" and soon arrives home to park his car in one of four garages labelled "Dad," "Mom," "Junior," and "Sis." An information gap question and answer activity, based on pairs in which one student watches the screen while the other listens to the narration, is used to teach about the role of automobile corporations in promoting car ownership and highway construction in the post-war era.

*Public service announcement (PSA) & government propaganda*

*Whose Side Are You on,*(1996): This is a series of PSAs made by the non-profit American Advertising Council's Coalition for America's Children. It uses real-life individuals and realistic situations to show how children in America's inner cities are menaced by drugs and crime. Viewers are asked to contribute to, or become involved in, other organizations which are working to help such children. A 30-second segment on "Mad Dads," a group of African-American men who superficially resemble gang members, but who are in fact African-American fathers who patrol their neighborhoods to monitor drug sellers, is used to help break stereotypes that may be held by students about African-American fathers and the African-American family in general.

## Conclusion

The appeal of video seems to cross most boundaries that can be found in the EFL classroom, including student level, age, culture, topic and teaching environment. Given some of the challenges inherent in creating an appropriate level content course for intermediate level students in the L1 environment, the use of edited and customized authentic video in combination with the kind of communicative and interactive activities which work well in the EFL classroom-based activities seems rational. Indeed, together with the approach outlined by Halvorsen and Gettings, it seems as likely as any approach to bridge the gap that intermediate students might otherwise fall through in this kind of challenging course.

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## Notes

1 The titles mentioned in this discussion, *Rosie the Riveter, Ethnic Notions , An Ocean Apart , The Flapper* and *Taken For A Ride* are all TV documentaries that have been shown by the U.S. Public Broadcasting Service (PBS). See the PBS Internet homepage <http://www.pbs. org> for more details.

# *Section Five*
# Culture

# Towards True Multiculturalism: Ideas for Teachers

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The goals of multiculturalism are certainly vital and worthwhile. However, there is much misunderstanding about what a true multiculturalism entails. Specifically, certain terms are carelessly used interchangeably, resulting in conceptual confusion. These terms are all fundamentally distinct, and though easy to understand, they are often confused, resulting in less than enlightened views about the nature of human diversity. Teaching students the importance of these distinctions is the first step in building a genuine multiculturalism. My discussion is based on experience teaching cultural anthropology, Japanese culture, English, and specialized seminars to Japanese students. Thus, the suggestions offered are specifically aimed for those working in the Japanese classroom. Appreciating the differences between ethnicity, citizenship, and race is indispensable for English content courses that deal with cultural diversity and cross-cultural understanding.

In this talk, I focus on several commonly misunderstood and misused terms. But first, allow me to ask the question, "What does it mean to be 'Japanese'?" The problem is that many confuse physical traits ("race"), ethnicity, and citizenship when answering this question. In other words, some believe that being Japanese means all of these, or that all these very different forms of identity naturally spring from some mystical essence of being Japanese. In order to answer this question, we should start with a fundamental distinction involving the difference between what people acquire through socialization and what people are born with. Or, more simply, the nurture-versus-nature distinction. Nurture refers to what is learned in the social environment (extra-genetic traits), while nature refers to innate traits (genetic traits.) This distinction is easy to understand but a surprising number of people fail to keep it in mind when discussing multiculturalism and human diversity. (see Figure 1)

| NURTURE: ACQUIRED VIA SOCIALIZATION ("CULTURE") | | NATURE: GENETICALLY DETERMINED |
|---|---|---|
| Political Affiliation<br>Citizenship<br>*Nationality | *Ethnicity<br>*Culture as Art<br>*Culture as Knowledge<br>*Nationality<br>Tradition<br>Human Relations<br>Language | *Race (*jinshu*)<br>Physical Traits |

* Designates terms with different definitions, often confusing and conflating several meanings.

## Ethnicity

The first term I discuss is ethnicity, or knowledge about self-identity and group affiliation that one acquires via socialization. Ethnicity is often used interchangeably with "race," though these two concepts are fundamentally different since race is genetically determined, and ethnicity is learned. Belonging to an ethnic group is not necessarily the same as belonging to a political unit, since historically states and empires usually contain within their borders several — sometimes many — ethnic groups. Many scholars equate ethnicity with "nationality," not with political affiliation or state membership. The group affiliation of ethnicity may be based on any number of sentiments rooted in a perceived common history, heritage, religion, language, geography, or political (cf. Connor 1994; Smith 1981).

## Citizenship

The next term I discuss is "citizenship," which can be simply defined as possessing membership in or belonging to a political unit usually defined as the nation-state. Historically, citizenship is a recent method of dividing up human groups, though an extremely important one. Citizenship is commonly called nationality, though as I just mentioned, many scholars equate nationality with ethnicity. Here allow me to note that what many label "nationalism" is really "statism," or possessing strong sentiments towards or attachment to political structures. "Nationalism," on the other hand, refers to strong sentiments towards or attachment to an ethnic group, and quite often, ethnic groups do not possess their own formal or official state structures. Or, whatever political structures they do possess are often components of or subordinate to a more powerful state apparatus.

Many people unthinkingly equate a geographical area with an ethnic group or with political structures. In English, the word "country" carries these multiple meanings, and in Japanese, *kuni* does. But it should be noted that there are many nations or ethnic groups that do not have a well-defined homeland due to periodic migration or have lost their homeland due to war or emigration.

## Race

Simply defined, race is the categorization of humans into groups based on physical appearance or traits. Of all the concepts discussed, this is the most problematic for a number of reasons, but the main reason is that there is no scientific evidence that different human races exist. Though up to now, I have been using the word "race" as if there were many races, at this point allow me to state that there is only one human race (*homo sapiens*). Race is more of a sociopolitical and economic classification than a biological one. Usually, when we think of race, we think of skin color, facial structure, eye shape, or hair, but in actuality there are countless other ways to categorize people using physical traits, such as foot size, ear shape, finger length, and thousands of unseen biochemical and genetic traits that make up our physicality. But, probably because they are all very obvious traits, we are socially conditioned to think of race as skin color, facial structure, eye shape, and hair.

The idea that there are different races was ideologically formalized in the nineteenth century, and this ideology was driven by, as it still is in many places, political and economic reasons. Basically, there have been three theories about race, all presently discredited by most scholars (but not by all). The first theory is one of "racial types." Late 19th and early 20th century scholars attempted to identify individuals who typified "original, pure" races, with characteristics such as head form, hair color, and facial features. For example, the "Nordic" was tall, long-headed, and blond. The "Alpine" was shorter, round-headed, and had brown or red hair. There are two major problems with the racial-type theory. First, it assumes that prehistoric races lacked variation, and there is no evidence that "pure" races ever existed. Second, even if pure races existed, we could not identify their traits in modern populations because of all the interbreeding that has occurred over tens of thousands of years. Thus, few scientists believe there are racial "types."

The second theory is one of "racial stocks." Some physical anthropologists have attempted to divide people into "major stocks" or "great races." For example: Asian, African, European, or Negroid, Caucasoid, Mongoloid. But none of these systems work, since any given individual shares features of more than one stock. Also, it has been discovered that hidden biochemical traits cross-cut racial groups. Thus, many scientists do not believe we can scientifically divide the human species into racial stocks.

The third theory is one of "zoological subspecies." If two animals can inbreed, they are said to belong to the same species. In zoological classification, a subspecies is a major division of a species, whose members share certain traits that differentiate them from the rest of the species. If 75% of the population can be distinguished by certain identifying traits, then it can be said that they are a subspecies. Some researchers believe that the different races of humankind are "subspecies" of one human race. Recently, the concept of animal "subspecies" has been seriously doubted by zoologists. But in any case, human groups have been and still are constantly inbreeding, so human subspecies cannot exist.

As I noted above, for many people race usually means differences in skin color and facial features, but actually there are many ways to biologically distinguish human groups. There are many genetic characteristics that cross-cut groups. For example, the sickle-cell gene is shared by "white" Mediterraneans and "black" Africans; ABO blood types vary tremendously among Mongoloid populations; lactase deficiency among the Baganda of East Africa is three times that of their neighbors, the Watusi, but almost the same as Chinese. No one calls these biological differences "race," but there is no reason why we could not.

To conclude this section on race, I do not think that race is a useful scientific concept. However, regardless of the unscientific status of this concept, racism, racialism, and racialist ideologies are deeply rooted in many parts of the world. Whether true or not, race, like some superstitious notions, governs the thoughts and actions of many people. We do not have to remind ourselves about the devastating effects of racism in our own societies. But here let me note that many of the differences that some Japanese attribute to culture, language (cf. Miller 1982), and history are actually parts of what seem to be a state-sponsored, or at least state-tolerated, form of racialism. In other words, the sociopolitical variable of race plays a large and disturbing role in Japanese society.

## "Culture"

Finally, some words about "culture" are pertinent, which needless to say is not genetically determined and comes from the environment. Culture is a word that inevitably crops up in any discussion of Japan. It is a word so bound up with Japanese studies that any serious observer of Japan is well advised to come to terms with its uses and abuses. For many Japanese (as well as non-Japanese), this word refers to their "unique" tradition, a collection of customs and beliefs found nowhere else.

The first point to be made is that, as in Japanese, "culture" has two meanings. The first (culture as art) refers to artistic pursuits or intellectual endeavors, usually of a refined nature. The second meaning (culture as knowledge), which subsumes the latter definition, is a social scientific concept whose precise definition has been and is still debated. Here I will not treat the numerous definitions offered in the literature, but provide a provisional definition that everyone should agree on: "something learned." Or more specifically, the arts, beliefs, customs, sociopolitical institutions, and all other products of human creation and thought developed by a group of people at a particular time which is learned. Here let me note that ethnicity, tradition, historical heritage, and language are cultural since they are learned.

Distinguishing the two aforementioned definitions of culture may seem elementary, but it is surprising how many scholars conflate these two meanings. Moreover, everyday usage of the term "culture" in Japan often merges culture as art and culture as socially-acquired knowledge.

Like people anywhere, most Japanese are proud of their culture's traditions. Some are so proud, in fact, that they are more than happy to tell non-Japanese just how special and "unique" their society is. The "Japanese-culture-as-unique" line of thought (e.g., four seasons, eating raw fish, Japanese language, sleeping on floors, using chopsticks, and Japanese rice [cf. Ohnuki-Tierney 1993] are commonly reported as "unique" examples of Japanese culture) at first glance may seem innocuous, even quaint, to the more cosmopolitan, but it possesses an ideological thrust that is insidious and far from being necessarily innocent. After all, the "uniqueness of the Japanese" (often meaning "superiority") (cf. Dale 1986) was a prewar fascist and racist slogan, used to justify imperialism, enslavement, and war atrocities. Today, non-Japanese (especially non-whites) living in Japan often receive treatment that is blatantly discriminatory. Such treatment is often justified by invoking some "unique" feature of Japanese culture. When Japanese legitimize, defend, or explain some trait as being due to the "uniqueness" of their culture they are often engaging in a form of cultural essentialism, which simply put, means to obfuscate (or to be kept unaware of) some belief or behavior's intimate relation to political plays or economic interests (Williams 1996, p. xxv). Concealing the political side of belief or behavior is a means to posit a "truth" that is immune from critical scrutiny, so that people often come to accept tautological determinism; i. e., "Japanese-act-that-way-because-they-are Japanese" (a circular argument prevalent among Japanese students I teach).

Cultural essentialism may be referred to as "culturalism." Bestor's study of the cultural dynamics that sustain and give identity to an urban neighborhood in Japan is pertinent here. He uses the term "traditionalism": "the manipulation, invention, and recombination of cultural patterns, symbols, and motifs so as to legitimate contemporary social realities by imbuing them with a patina of venerable historicity" (1989, p. 2). According to Bestor, traditionalism is a "common Japanese cultural device for managing or responding to social change" (1989, p. 10). Traditionalism and culturalist explanations are both attempts to add legitimacy to present-day social and political arrangements by constructing and reshaping conventions.

## Conclusion

To conclude, I would like to say that one of the most challenging problems of a sincere multiculturalism is how to build an intelligently informed multiculturalism which relies on social scientific concepts and discards unscientific and confusing notions. Another problem is to get the state to accept diversity within its geographical borders and within its ideological boundaries. Instructors, Japanese and non-Japanese alike, have the responsibility to counter elite and state-sponsored myth-making. I would suggest that, in order to teach a genuine multiculturalism, instructors carefully consider the meaning of the words commonly used to come to terms with human diversity. I do not expect people to adopt my own choice of definitions and uses for the terms previously explained; however, I believe that we should at least all be aware that careless usage can only lead to confusion, resulting in the perpetuation of damaging myths about the meaning of human diversity. Another suggestion is that instructors inform themselves about the facts of Japan, and carefully avoid repeating the many myths about Japan and the Japanese people (examples: "Japanese culture is unique"; "the Japanese people are homogeneous"; "the Japanese are conformist"; "the Japanese language is hard for foreigners to learn"; "Japan is a small country"; "Japanese act like this because we were a closed society during Tokugawa"; or "we live in an island country"; or "we used to live in an agricultural society"; or "we have four seasons"; "we are shy"; "we used to be vegetarians"; "we are Buddhist"; "we are Shintoist"; etc.) (cf. Yoshino 1992).

Let me end by repeating a point already made. It is extremely important to distinguish the various concepts that I have discussed, because without doing so, we run the grave danger of assuming that cultural knowledge is something determined by physical traits or genes. We also run the danger of essentializing human differences that should not be essentialized, notably physical traits, which are, after all, only skin deep.

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# Comparing Cultures through Critical Thinking: Development and Interpretation of Meaningful Observations

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Japanese college students today come into freshman classes lacking experience in basic learning skills. This is due in part to emphasis in schools on the cognitive aspect of education at the expense of ignoring basic human dimensions such as feeling, reacting, and internalizing (Batcher, 1981; Burns, 1982). Schools emphasize teaching over learning. Studies have revealed that more favorable self-esteem develops in pupils from innovative and humanistically oriented schools than in more traditionally oriented schools (Burns, 1982; Luk, C. L. & Bond M. H., 1992).

In response to this need for an environment where students take control of their own learning, a university Comparative Cultures class in Japan was devised in which students were taught a basic methodology for approaching the subject matter through observing, thinking, and evaluating rather than being simply introduced to differences in Western culture.

Many students enter the first day of class lacking experience in using critical thinking processes to solve problems logically. Davidson describes critical thinking as

> the capacity to create and analyze proofs or arguments by making sound use of evidence and logic. Such skills include the ability to construct a coherent chain of reasoning and also the ability to evaluate sources of information for their relative objectivity, coherence, and validity. (1994a, p. 20)

Students also lack the ability to debate ideas and share opposing opinions with others. Debate has been shown to be a very effective classroom tool employed by foreign instructors in Japan to facilitate Japanese students in using logical reasoning and problem solving and in expressing agreement and disagreement (Bolichowski, H. 1995; Izumi, K. 1995; Le, V., 1995).

Also, many students have well defined ethnocentric and stereotypical viewpoints limiting their ability to objectively evaluate new or unusual ideas. Many often resort to narrowing things down to over-simplistic categories of either "good" or "bad" rather than viewing other ideas, peoples or cultures in a total context. Japanese students also have a tendency to reduce things to a common consensual agreement, rather than developing and expressing their own individual ideas.

It is not so much that students are loathe to think about and discuss important or interesting issues; rather it is the problem simply of having inadequate experience and techniques for doing so. Once given the tools to do so, students often show great enthusiasm and proficiency in objectively analyzing and comparing cultures. A methodology for developing ideas and interpreting observations in a meaningful manner was needed.

An objective was established to bring students to recognize the value of diversity in cultural perspectives in differing peoples between and within cultures. An important aspect of this was to create opportunities for students to experience learning through a process of their own discovery. The purpose here was to give Japanese students a methodology for interpreting and evaluating other cultures through a process where they would visualize themselves "standing in the shoes of others" and seeing the world from another's eyes. The theme song from the animated Disney film, Pocahontas, is used to illustrate this to students. The Indian princess says to the British settler, ". . . if you walk the footsteps of a stranger, you'll learn things you never knew you never knew" (Schwartz, 1995). The ultimate goal was that through the process of bringing students to realize the richness of cultural variety outside of their country and themselves, they would also come to see their own patterns of thought and ways of behavior as being equally important. Through this approach students would develop the means for self-critique and with it, the ability to evaluate critically.

### Understanding stereotypical thinking

It is natural for people to evaluate their world from their personal perspective and to place others in broad general categories — that is, to make stereotypical generalizations of others. This can be problematic if carried to an extreme. Not only is this a problem for students, but instructors themselves are also often guilty. Much has been written about the need for more cultural understanding on the part of Western instructors coming into Asian classrooms (Cogan, 1995; Davidson 1994a, Flowerdew & Miller, 1995). Although it may not always be an easy thing to do, it is of particular importance for instructors to try to keep an objective approach in their analysis of cultures, so as to set a model for students. Davidson advises teachers to ask themselves the following question: "Are we aiming at training our students to be discerning individuals able to decide for themselves whether or not they accept an idea, or are we trying to influence them subliminally to accept uncritically our ideas?" (1994a, p. 21) From the first class, students and teacher alike must put themselves in a frame of mind where constant attempts are made to view other cultures "from the shoes of the other," as mentioned earlier. In introducing the concept of ethnocentrism to students, several illustrations and activities were presented to make students aware, first, of the problems, and secondly, to work on ways of avoiding them.

### First day classroom activity: ethnocentrism

One of the introductory activities that students are asked to do on the first day of class is to take only about three to five minutes to draw a map of the world (major continents and countries) on a white piece of paper as best they can without looking at any resources. What results from this activity is not only a great range in complexity of maps that are produced, but also variations are seen in distortions in the size of other countries compared to the size of their country, Japan. Some students draw Japan extremely oversized, others draw it undersized. Nearly all the maps drawn by Japanese students place Japan in the middle. Students are later asked to evaluate their maps noticing differences and similarities among each other. Then several other versions of maps are shown such as the European version with England in the middle, USA to the west and Japan to the East or the "Down Under" map where the globe is turned upside down with Australia centralized and the rest of the southern hemisphere in the top part of the map.

This lesson is used to illustrate our unconscious ethnocentrism. Oxford English Reference Dictionary defines ethnocentric as "evaluating other races and cultures by criteria specific to one's own." Again in referring to the lyrics from "Colors of the Wind," Pocahontas accuses John Smith of ethnocentrism, "You think the only people who are people are the people who look and think like you" (Schwartz, 1995).

### Forming consensus & keeping integrity: panel discussion

A unit on panel discussions was introduced for the purpose of giving students experience in sharing differing attitudes based on differing points of view and then coming to an agreement or a "Conference Statement" while maintaining their integrity. The task was to question each other, but to respect others' opinions (not to argue and debate, usually). Thus, without abandoning their principles, students had to come to sympathize with others and come to a compromise.

Students were asked to choose from among several suggested panels a role of a person from a particular country, culture or ethnicity (sometimes including their own) or to choose the role of the moderator. They were to assume that role in discussing the particular issue of the panel. It was important that they try to come to sympathize with the role they chose and to get into their role. This could be furthered by going to the library and reading up about aspects of their role.

The role of the moderator was to keep the pace moving, to break up arguments and to be fair in deciding whose turn it was to speak during discussion—to make sure that one aggressive person wasn't keeping the microphone for too long. However, with Japanese students, prodding is often necessary to make students speak; for example, the moderator might say, "Sue Smith, from USA, what is your response to Mohammed's view on. . . " The moderator must be fair, unbiased and only play the role of facilitating the smooth discussion of the panel. Another option would be for students who chose to be moderator to also take on a regular role from another panel or for the teacher to be the moderator.

### *Example topic*

One example of a panel topic was concerned with the bullying problem in schools. It was presented as follows: foreign students have been bullied in Japanese schools. The panel was assembled to talk in general about the rising problems of bullying in schools related to problems of "being different" in a society that emphasizes conformity, problems of children not knowing how to play and interact with each other, problems of student's frustrations and insecurities, home problems, and problems of the educational system. Seven panel members included a moderator and a Japanese and a foreigner role for each of the following: a parent of a middle school student, a middle school teacher, and a middle school student (not necessarily the child of the parent above). Students were to decide for themselves the country of of origin of the foreigners.

### *Classtime preparation*

First meeting: rules of how to play. Students use two class periods and homework to prepare for their panel which takes place on the third class. From the beginning, students understand what is expected of them. First, each speaker is given 2 to 3 minutes to present their individual prepared statements on the issue of discussion. The content is based on the role they take on, not necessarily their real opinions. After all of the panelists present their viewpoints, a general discussion follows for about 5 to 8 minutes. Importance is stressed here for panelists to speak out and question, disagree, seek clarification, make comments or add to other panelists' views. There is no order of who speaks first. The rest of the class listens, asks questions or makes comments at the end of the time period.

On the first meeting, all points of the unit are introduced generally. Roles are decided. The number of panelists should be adjusted to fit the number of students in the class so that every student will have at least one role. Students move into panel groups and discuss freely. They should keep notes indicating areas where more information is to be needed. By the next class, students should prepare by doing library research about their role and preferably also about other panelists' roles as well. Before the next class, each panelist must prepare a draft of a two to three minute statement regarding the theme of the panel. The moderator decides the format to be used to make name placards for the panelists and moderator. Also the panelists, but especially the moderator, try to brainstorm possible consensual statements for homework, even at this early stage.

Second meeting: discussion. Having researched in the library, everyone has a deeper perspective on their role. On this day, small groups are formed in differing places around the classroom for each of the panels where each panelist presents his/her statement in their discussion group. Then they begin discussing, questioning and commenting. The moderator tries to suggest a compromise statement, and modifies it as panelists discuss, agree, or disagree. If students have not had enough discussion time together in class to feel confident to present their panels by the following classtime, they should arrange a time to meet together outside of class to further practice in preparation.

Third meeting: panels presented. On this day the panels are presented. Students are encouraged to challenge themselves by being expressive, speaking out and questioning loudly, clearly, and confidently. If possible, the panels should be videotaped. An edited video of best excerpts can be shown on the last day of class. Students not in the panel being presented are to listen, learn, comment, and ask questions. Students evaluate others and also evaluate themselves by considering what they would do better next time.

Fourth meeting: consensus and conference statement. On the final day, any presentations not finished from the class before are presented. Then each panel meets together to discuss among themselves and come up with a statement of agreement to be submitted in written form. First, the students should write down individually what they feel to be points of agreement among all the panelists. Then all come together and share their ideas and discuss problems and points that need to be compromised. It is the moderator's job, with the help of the panelists to write up a statement that all can agree upon and sign. Since agreement is the final goal, panelists should lean toward agreement rather than debate. However, it is important that they preserve their integrity and principles. If time permits, students present their conference statements to the class. Otherwise, they are submitted in writing and copies are made later for other students to see. If students are unable to finish within the allotted classtime, they must complete it as a group for homework.

## Conclusion

The purpose of this course was to give students the tools in hand so that they are equipped with a methodology for evaluating and comparing any or all aspects of cultures, not only those limited topics selected for study within the classroom time framework. Furthermore, students possess the skills and means for expressing themselves to others. Hopefully they internalize that the purpose of comparing cultures is not to determine that one culture is right and another culture is wrong or that one culture is better than another; rather through coming to understand other cultures, students come back to look at themselves and their own country and try to find the means to be better than they already are.

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# Authority and Individualism in Japan and the U.S.A.

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"Status-oriented," "hierarchical," "formal," "group-oriented," "collectivistic," "interdependent": these terms are found throughout the literature which aims to expand one's understanding of Japan and things Japanese. However, as Dean Barnlund (1989), one of the first to use and popularize such terms, notes, "it is tempting once we have become attached to certain views of a culture for such images, through constant reiteration, to acquire the power of myth" (p. 167). The myth of the Japanese student, group- and status-oriented, can be used to predict and explain students' behavior, thereby influencing all aspects of teaching. Relying on the myth of the Japanese student, accounting for students' behavior can, nevertheless, remain a hit or miss affair. It was this discrepancy between what had been read about the mythological Japanese student and what had actually been experienced with very real students in the classroom that prompted the present research.

## Background

Geert Hofstede (1980), a Dutch professor of organizational anthropology and international management, has conducted exhaustive national culture research. Between 1967 and 1974, he designed and administered an international attitude survey program for International Business Machines (IBM). The paper-and-pencil survey contained, among other items, 32 values questions. Hofstede defines a value as "a broad tendency to prefer certain states of affairs over others . . . this definition reserves the word 'value' for mental programs that are relatively unspecific: the same mental program can be activated in a variety of situations" (p. 19). The questionnaire was translated into 20 languages and administered to matched samples of employees of IBM subsidiaries in 40 different countries. Employees were matched by occupation, age and sex. The survey was administered twice, allowing for the stability of differences found and trends over time to be examined. Over 116,000 surveys were ultimately available for analysis.

Ecological factor analysis of the 32 mean values scores of the 40 countries revealed that 49% of the variance in means could be explained by three factors, one of which was later divided into two factors (Hofstede, 1980). These four factors, or dimensions, comprise Hofstede's four-dimensional model of cultural difference. The labels chosen for the four dimensions and their interpretations are as follows:

1. Power Distance. This is the degree to which a society accepts the idea that power is to be distributed unequally.

The more this is accepted, the higher the Power Distance ranking. "All societies are unequal but some are more unequal than others" (Hofstede, 1980, p. 136).

2. Individualism. This is the degree to which a society feels that individuals' beliefs and actions should be independent of collective thought and action. The more this idea is accepted, the higher the rank on this measure.
3. Masculinity. This is the degree to which a society focuses on assertiveness, task achievement, and the acquisition of things as opposed to quality of life issues such as caring for others, group solidarity, and helping the less fortunate. The more assertiveness, competitiveness, and ambition are accepted, the higher a country's Masculinity ranking.
4. Uncertainty Avoidance. This is the degree to which a society feels threatened by ambiguous situations and tries to avoid them by providing rules and refusing to tolerate deviance. The more a society accepts this idea, the higher its ranking in Uncertainty Avoidance (Goodman, 1994, p. 138).

All 40 countries were given an index score on each dimension and subsequently grouped into eight culture areas (Hofstede, 1980), based upon their index scores on each dimension and their common histories, which partly explain their similar index scores. Only Japan represents a culture area by itself. It is labeled "More Developed Asian," with a medium Power Distance Index score, a medium Individualism Index score, a high Uncertainty Avoidance Index score, and a high Masculinity Index score. The U.S.A. is clustered with Australia, Canada, Great Britain, Ireland and New Zealand, and labeled "Anglo." All the countries in the "Anglo" cluster have small to medium Power Distance Index scores, high Individualism Index scores, low to medium Uncertainty Avoidance Index scores, and high Masculinity Index scores (p. 336). The relative positions of all 40 countries which Hofstede surveyed on Power Distance and Individualism axes, the values with which the present research is concerned, are shown in Figure 1. The abbreviations used are shown in Table 1.

Figure 1. Position of 40 Countries on Power Distance and Individualism. Source: *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values*, by G. H. Hofstede, 1980 (p. 223). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

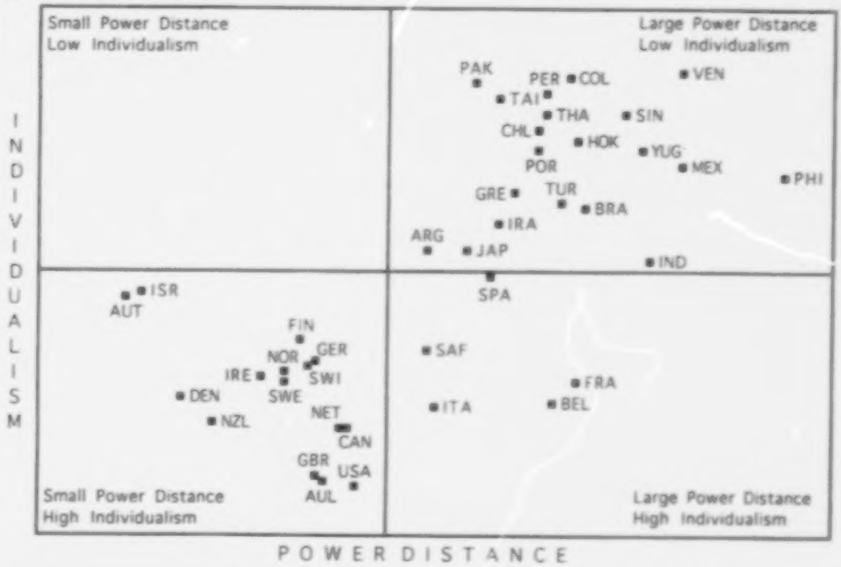

Table 1. Abbreviations Used in Figure 1

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ARG | Argentina | GRE | Greece | PHI | Philipines |
| AUL | Australia | HOK | Hong Kong | POR | Portugal |
| AUT | Austria | IND | India | SAF | South Africa |
| BEL | Belgium | IRA | Iran | SIN | Singapore |
| BRA | Brazil | IRE | Ireland | SPA | Spain |
| CAN | Canada | ISR | Israel | SWE | Sweden |
| CHL | Chile | ITA | Italy | SWI | Switzerland |
| COL | Columbia | JAP | Japan | TAI | Taiwan |
| DEN | Denmark | MEX | Mexico | THA | Thailand |
| FIN | Finland | NET | Netherlands | TUR | Turkey |
| FRA | France | NOR | Norway | USA | United States |
| GBR | Great Britain | NZL | New Zealand | VEN | Venezuela |
| GER | Germany (West) | PAK | Pakistan | YUG | Yugoslavia |
| | | PER | Peru | | |

## Method

The relevance of Hofstede's research to educational settings "is based on the assumption that role patterns and value systems in a society are carried forward from the school to the job and back" (1986, p. 306). The workplace and the school are fundamental institutions found in all human societies. Both institutions have a pair of unequal but complementary basic roles or "archetypal role pairs": boss-subordinate and teacher-student. These archetypal roles are played in different ways in different societies, dependent upon each society's culture and value systems. Yet role patterns interact among institutions so that teacher-student patterns of interaction will be carried over to boss-subordinate patterns of interaction within a society.

Unfortunately for the researcher, Hofstede's original survey does not carry over from the workplace to the school as easily as role patterns and value systems. Its length and questions unrelated to values make classroom administration difficult. In subsequent writings, however, Hofstede (1986) suggested differences in teacher-student and student-student interaction related to Power Distance and Individualism. These were adapted for use in a cross-cultural training program module (Goodman, 1994), in the form of a self-assessment exercise, which easily lends itself to classroom administration (see Appendix A).

### *Instrument*

Goodman's original self-assessment exercise presents 46 paired statements adapted from Hofstede's list of differences in teacher-student and student-student interaction related to Power Distance and Individualism. Participants are instructed to circle the statement in each pair they agree with most strongly. They are instructed to work quickly, rather than taking time to consider a "right" answer, thus helping to avoid responses predicated upon the expected cultural norm. Based upon the 23 statements chosen, participants' Individualism and Power Distance levels are then determined. A Japanese translation of Goodman's instrument was prepared through a back translation process (see Appendix B).

### *Participants*

Japanese participants. The Japanese version of the instrument was administered to 156 first-year students at Hiroshima Shudo University in July 1995. All participants were fluent in Japanese. Seventy participants were from the Faculty of Commercial Sciences; sixty-three were from the Faculty of Humanities and Human Sciences; twenty-three participants were from the Faculty of Law.

American participants. Goodman's original survey was administered to 106 students with freshman standing at Palomar

College, San Marcos, California in January and February 1996. All participants were fluent in English and enrolled in an introductory English composition course. They ranged in age from 16 to 57, with a median age of 20 and an average age of 22. Of the Palomar participants, 75.5% were European Americans, 14.2% Hispanic Americans, 5.7% African Americans, 2.8% Asian Americans, and Native Americans and Middle Eastern Americans each comprised 0.9% of the students surveyed.

### *Procedure*

All participants were reminded, in English, not to identify themselves by name on the instrument, to consider all of their educational experiences when completing the instrument, and to work quickly in completing the instrument. Participants completed the instrument in 3 to 10 minutes.

## Results

The means of the 156 Shudo students and the 106 Palomar students on Power Distance and Individualism axes are shown in Figure 2. The abbreviations used are shown in Table 2.

Figure 2. Positions of Hiroshima Shudo University and Palomar College on Power Distance and Individualism.

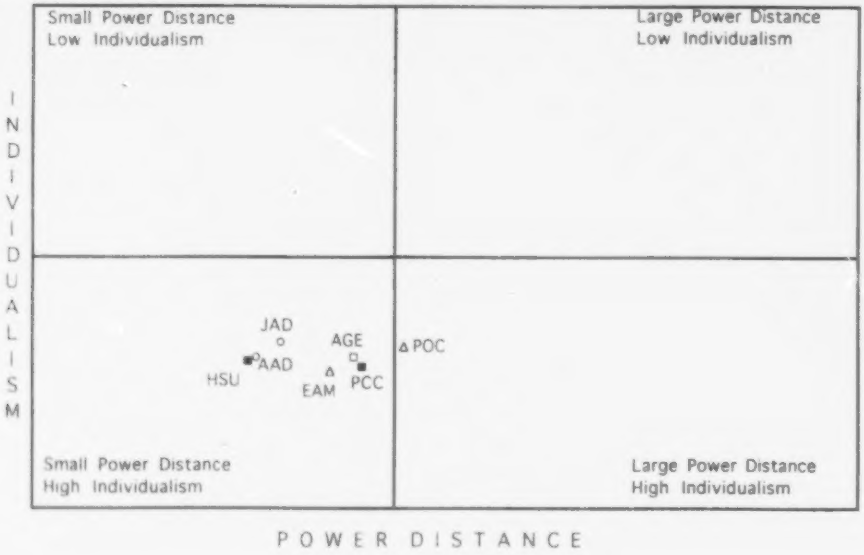

**Table 2. Abbreviations Used in Figure 2**

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| HSU | Hiroshima Shudo University | JAD | Japanese Administrator |
| | | AAD | American Administrator |
| PCC | Palomar College | POC | People of Color |
| AGE | Age Adjustment | EAM | European Americans |

The Shudo mean represents medium to small Power Distance and medium to high Individualism. Similarly, the Palomar mean represents medium Power Distance and medium to high Individualism. Eighty-four percent of the Shudo students and 67% of the Palomar students placed within the Small Power Distance-High Individualism quadrant, the location of the U.S.A. in Hofstede's original findings. Three percent of the Shudo students and 4% of the Palomar students placed within the Large Power Distance-Low Individualism quadrant, the position of Japan in Hofstede's original research. Overall, 96% of the Shudo students and 69% of the Palomar students placed somewhere within the Small Power Distance quadrants, while 85% of the Shudo students and 94% of the Palomar students placed somewhere within the High Individualism quadrants.

## Discussion

The paired statements from which respondents were instructed to choose represent extremes of Small and Large Power Distances and Low and High Individualism and, as Hofstede (1986) notes, "reality is often in between these extremes" (p. 311). Nevertheless, the picture of Shudo University students which emerges from the research, a group with Small Power Distance and High Individualism, reveals values significantly different from those revealed by Hofstede's original research and purported to be held by the mythological Japanese student, but surprisingly similar to the values held by their U.S. American counterparts at Palomar College.

Having conducted a longitudinal survey, first around 1968 and again around 1972, and having matched respondents for age, Hofstede (1980) was able to see and foresee outcomes like those revealed by the present research. While explaining the stability of cultural patterns over long periods of time due to their reinforcement by institutions, which are themselves the products of the dominant value systems, Hofstede also acknowledges that cultures do change. In addition, he recognizes that the rate of change has increased during the past two centuries. He attributes differences in values among respondents of different ages, or at different times, or both to four possible causes: maturation, generation, *Zeitgeist* , and seniority. As a result of maturation, respondents' values shift as they age, generally with a direct relationship between increased age and increased conservatism or desire to maintain existing cultural values. As a result of generation, values are set in the young people from a certain period and stay with them throughout their lifetime. If the conditions of life during youth change drastically, this may result in different generations having different fixed values. As a result of *Zeitgeist*, trends in society, values change throughout a society or culture, regardless of age, generation or seniority. And as a result of seniority, for respondents from one particular organization, their values shift not because they have physically aged but because they have become more senior within the organization (p. 345).

### *Power Distance*

Among Japanese students. Hofstede's research (1980) revealed "a decrease of the desired power distance worldwide" (p. 342). He attributes this decrease to a combined maturation and *Zeitgeist* effect. "Equality" generally appeals less to older than to younger individuals, although better educated people tend to mature later and stay in touch with societal trends longer (p. 355). Furthermore, across cultures, the desire for greater equality grew with an increase over time in the technology necessary to provide for an increasing world population and the accompanying increase in education levels and the size of the middle classes (p. 353). The relatively young age of the Hiroshima Shudo University participants would then explain a smaller Power Distance than that found in Japanese society as a whole. Likewise, the continuance in Japan of the trends Hofstede describes —increased technology, increased education levels and increased size of the middle classes — would also help to account for the Shudo students' small Power Distance.

Although the participants were verbally instructed to consider all their educational experiences when completing the instrument, it is possible that the context in which the Shudo students completed the survey, an EFL class taught by a U.S. American teacher, influenced their perception of the word "teacher" when it appeared in the survey. To test for this possibility, a Japanese professor administered the Japanese language version of the survey to 19 first-year Commercial Science students enrolled in his English class at Shudo. The students originally surveyed in the Commercial Sciences faculty had a slightly larger Power Distance and slightly lower Individualism than the Shudo mean. When surveyed by a Japanese professor, there was a small increase in Power Distance and an even smaller decrease in Individualism among Commercial Science students (see Figure 2). The effect of the ethnicity of the teacher, however, is not great enough to account for the very large differences found between the cultural values of Shudo students and those claimed for mythological Japanese students.

Among American students. Similarly, maturation and *Zeitgeist* effects may account for the Power Distance of the Palomar group. The slightly older mean age of the Palomar students could result in a larger Power Distance. And, when age is controlled for, Power Distance does decrease slightly, although not to as low a level as the Shudo students' (see Figure 2). Individualism also decreases slightly, which is counter to the indirect relation Hofstede found between age and Individualism. The Palomar group does not appear to manifest "a decrease of the desired power distance" (1980, p. 342), like that shown by Hofstede's findings. One possible reason for this may be the steadily growing income inequality in the U.S.A. over the past 20 years — a *Zeitgeist* effect. While there was a trend toward greater income equality in the 1950's and 1960's, income inequality grew in the U.S.A. during the 1980's, creating the widest income gap between rich and poor of any large industrialized country, and this income disparity persists today (Wolff, 1995). Hofstede (1980) comments, "it seems that on the level of societies, inequality in power and inequality in wealth go hand in hand. The greater the power inequality, the greater the wealth inequality, and vice versa. Larger or smaller inequality in wealth is one of the elements in the causal chain that helps to explain the power distance syndrome" (p. 125). If so, it is not surprising that the Power Distance among Palomar students is not as small as one might anticipate.

*Individualism*

Among Japanese students. Regarding Individualism, Hofstede's research (1980) revealed "a sharp increase in individualism" (p. 367) throughout the 40 countries surveyed, and he noted that "Japan [is] shifting fast to the individualist side" (p. 236). He attributes this increase to a *Zeitgeist* effect. There is a strong association between individualism and national wealth, and most of the countries became wealthier during the four-year period in which his research was conducted.

In the twenty years since 1974, the year in which Hofstede completed his original research, Japan's GDP per capita has increased by approximately 82%, compared with about a 54% increase during the period of Hofstede's research (Asahi, 1995, p. 279). Currently, Japan's GDP per capita is the seventh highest in the world (JETRO, 1995, p. 2). While the rate of growth has slowed since 1974, Hofstede's longitudinal study (1980) reveals a strong relation between national wealth, not economic growth, and Individualism, with causality from wealth to Individualism (p. 14). Similarly, there is a weaker negative correlation between Power Distance and national wealth (1986, p. 308). As a result of these two correlations, one finds most wealthy industrialized countries in the Small Power Distance-High Individualism quadrant. The present results place Shudo students in this same quadrant. Again, as a result of the *Zeitgeist* effect, values change throughout a culture, due to drastic, system-wide changes in conditions. Japan's increased wealth is a drastic, system-wide change which may have resulted in the increased Individualism among Shudo participants and, to a lesser degree, the decreased Power Distance.

The present, limited research makes it impossible to determine which of the four causes delineated by Hofstede may account for the findings. Undoubtedly maturation and *Zeitgeist* are important influences. It is possible that the shifts revealed may also be attributed to a generational effect in Japan, for the generation of the Japanese participants in this research has been labeled by Japanese society as *shin jin rui*, literally "new human beings." This term, popularized about five years ago, is most often applied to those approximately 25 years old and younger. At their worst, these new human beings are described by older Japanese as selfish, self-centered and disrespectful of their elders and of tradition, terms which can also be used to describe the negative aspects of Small Power Distance and High Individualism.

Among American students. At the time of Hofstede's research, the U.S.A. was the wealthiest country in the world, as it is today. Given the strong association between national wealth and Individualism described by Hofstede, this should contribute to greater Individualism. The lower Individualism revealed by the present research, though, may be partially accounted for by the relatively high level of ethnic diversity among the Palomar group.

In general, in intercultural studies, "American culture refers to the dominant patterns . . . of mainstream Americans, composed primarily, but not exclusively, of members of the white, male middle class" (Stewart & Bennett, 1991, xii). Although Hofstede's research was conducted across occupations in IBM, only a sizable working-class population was found in the manufacturing plants, with the middle class predominate in all other sectors. While Hofstede does not further analyze the national cultures he examines according to ethnic subcultures, it is probably safe to assume that the American IBM employees surveyed from 1967 to 1974 were not as ethnically diverse as the students surveyed at Palomar. At Palomar, 24.5% of the students surveyed were People of Color. However, they accounted for 50% of the surveyed population placing in the Low Individualism quadrants. Their Individualism mean was somewhat lower than their European American counterparts', and their Power Distance mean was significantly larger (See Figure 2).

## Conclusion

Stereotypes can serve as "a first, best guess" (Brislin, 1993, p. 178) when considering a culture and how to function within it. Experiences in that culture, however, and exploratory studies such as this, "suggest there may be a substantial gap between cultural clichés and cultural realities" (Barnlund, 1989, p. 167). The mythological Japanese student, group- and status-oriented, should be regarded alongside the present findings which indicate that first-year Hiroshima Shudo University students are surprisingly similar to their Palomar College counterparts, preferring a moderately egalitarian distribution of power in student-teacher interactions and moderately independent beliefs and actions in student-student interactions. A comparison between the student clichés and the subcultural realities suggests that a reassessment of present teaching methodologies may be required in order to accommodate the values and adequately fulfill the learning needs of very real students. Ultimately, a willingness to question stereotypes, remain tentative and less absolute regarding classroom interactions is most needed.

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## Appendix A

Instructions: Below there are 46 statements that are clustered in pairs. Circle the statement in each matched pair that you are most comfortable with. There are no wrong answers. Make your choice as spontaneously as possible. You will have 23 items circled at the end of the exercise.

1. A positive association in society is with whatever is rooted in tradition.
2. A positive association in society is with whatever is "new."

3. Impersonal "truth" is stressed and can, in principle, be obtained from any competent person.
4. Personal "wisdom" is stressed and is transferred in the relationship with a particular teacher (guru).

5. A teacher should respect the independence of his or her students.
6. A teacher merits the respect of his or her students.

7. One is never too old to learn; continual education.
8. The young should learn; adults cannot accept a student role.

9. Students expect to learn how to do.
10. Students expect to learn how to learn.

11. Student-centered education (value is placed on student initiative).
12. Teacher-centered education (value is placed on teacher-ordered learning).

13. Students expect teacher to initiate communication.
14. Teacher expects students to initiate communication.

15. Teacher expects students to find their own paths.
16. Students expect teacher to outline paths to follow.

17. Individual students will speak up in class in response to a general invitation by the teacher.
18. Individual students will only speak up in class when called upon personally by the teacher.

19. Individuals will speak up in large groups.
20. Individuals will only speak up in small groups.

21. Large classes are split socially into smaller cohesive subgroups based on particularist criteria (e.g., ethnic affiliation).
22. Subgroupings in class vary from one situation to the next based on universalist criteria (e.g., the task at hand).

23. Students may speak up spontaneously in class.
24. Students speak up in class only when invited by the teacher.

25. The teacher is seldom contradicted and rarely criticized.
26. Students are allowed to contradict or criticize teacher.

27. Confrontation in learning situations can be beneficial; conflicts can be brought into the open.
28. Formal harmony in learning situations should be maintained.

29. Effectiveness of learning is related to the excellence of the teacher.
30. Effectiveness of learning is related to the amount of two-way communication in class.

31. Neither the teacher nor any student should be made to lose face.
32. "Face-saving" is of little importance.

33. Education is a way of improving one's economic worth and self-respect based on ability and competence.
34. Education is a way of gaining prestige in one's social environment and of joining a higher status group.

35. Outside class, teachers are treated as equals to students.
36. Respect for teachers is also shown outside of class.

37. Diploma certificates are important and displayed on walls.
38. Diploma certificates have little importance.

39. In teacher-student conflicts, parents are expected to side with the student.
40. In teacher-student conflicts, parents are expected to side with the teacher.

41. Older teachers are more respected than younger teachers.
42. Younger teachers are more liked than older teachers.

43. Acquiring competence is more important than acquiring certificates.
44. Acquiring certificates is more important than acquiring competence.

45. Teachers are expected to give preferential treatment to some students (e.g., based on ethnic affiliation or on recommendation by an influential person).
46. Teachers are expected to be strictly impartial.

Source. Intercultural education at the university level: Teacher-student interaction, by N. R. Goodman, 1994. In P. Pederson (Series Ed.) & R. W. Brislin & T. Yoshida (Vol. Eds.), *Multicultural aspects of counseling series: Vol. 3. Improving intercultural interactions: Modules for cross-cultural training programs* (pp. 130-131). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

## Appendix B

下記の４６文は、２文ずつのペアになっています。　各ペアのうち、自分の意見により近いと思う方に○をして下さい。　間違った答えというものはありません。あまり考えすぎづに直感で選んで下さい。　最終的には、２３の○がつ、ことになります。

１、社会では、伝統に根付いたものと、積極的つながりを持つ。
２、社会では、「新しいもの」と、積極的つながりを持つ。

３、一搬的「真理」が重要であり、それはおおむね、いかなる有能な人物からも得る事ができる。
４、個人的「知識」が重要であり、それは特定の教師との関わりあいから得られるものである。

５、教師は、生徒の自立を尊重すべきである。
６、教師は、生徒から尊敬されるべきである。

７、生涯が学習であり、年齢的に遅すぎるということはけしてない。
８、若い方が学習に適し、大人になれば、生徒にはなれない。

９、生徒は何かの仕方を学びたい。
１０、生徒は学び方を学びたい。

１１、生徒中心の教育、つまり生徒の自主性が重んじられるべきである。
１２、教師中心の教育、つまり教師の指示による学習が重んじられるべきである。

１３、生徒は、教師にコミニケーションの主導を期待する。
１４、教師は、生徒にコミニケーションの主導を期待する。

１５、教師は、生徒自身が道を見つけだすことを期待する。
１６、生徒は、教師が進むべき道を示してくれることを期待する。

１７、クラス内では、教師の全体への呼びかけに対し、個々の生徒が自由に発言する。
１８、クラス内では、教師によって指名された生徒が発言する。

１９、個々の生徒は、大グループ内でも発言する。
２０、個々の生徒は、小グループ内でのみ発言する。

２１、大人数クラスは、排他的基準（民族など）により、つながりの強い小グループへと分かれる。
２２、クラス内の小グループは、一般的基準（作業内容など）により状況ごとに変わる。

２３、生徒は、クラス内で自発的に発言してよい。
２４、生徒は、教師により指名された時のみ発言する。

２５、教師は、反論されたり批判されたりすることはほとんどない。
２６、生徒は、教師に反論したり、教師を批判してもよい。

２７、学習の場での対立は有益である。衝突もオープンにすべきである。
２８、学習の場では調和・協調が保たれるべきである。

２９、有効な学習は、教師の優秀さと関係がある。
３０、有効な学習は、クラス内での相互のコミニケーションの量に関係がある。

３１、教師も生徒も、体面を失うようなことは避けるべきである。
３２、体面は、ほとんど重要ではない。

３３、教育は、個人の経済的価値と能力に基ずく自尊心を高めるための方法である。
３４、教育は、個人の経済的名声を得るため、より高い地位を得るための方法である。

３５、クラス外では、教師と生徒は同等である。
３６、クラス外でも、教師に対する尊敬に念は保たれる。

３７、資格証書は、重要であり壁に飾るべきである。
３８、資格証書は、ほとんど重要ではない。

３９、教師と生徒の衝突の場では、親は生徒側につくべきである。
４０、教師と生徒の衝突の場では、親は教師側につくべきである。

４１、年輩の教師は、若い教師より尊敬できる。
４２、若い教師は、年輩の教師より好かれる。

４３、能力を得ることが、資格証書を得るより重要である。
４４、資格証書を得ることが、能力を得るより重要である。

４５、教師は、民族の違いや有力者の影響によって、特定の生徒を優遇することがあってもよい。
４６、教師は、厳密に公平であるべきである。

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# Organiser un Séjour Linguistique en France pour des Étudiants Japonais: Première Expérience en Février-Mars 1996

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## Introduction

Il est généralement de plus en plus admis qu'un séjour linguistique dans le pays d'origine est essentiel à l'acquisition d'une langue et d'une culture étrangères. Cela me parait particulièrement vrai pour les Japonais étudiant le français, langue peu connue et peu représentée au Japon. J'ai moi-même acquis la conviction au cours de mes neuf ans d'enseignement dans ce pays qu'un séjour linguistique dans un pays francophone était un complément indispensable aux études faites ici même. Mais, bien qu'un tel séjour soit plus accessible que jamais aux étudiants japonais, nombreux sont ceux qui ne veulent pas ou n'osent pas profiter de cette possibilité, ou, ne se sentant pas "prêts", remettent à toujours plus tard sa réalisation. Plusieurs institutions japonaises, convaincues de la nécessité d'un tel séjour linguistique, l'intègrent dans leur curriculum: ainsi, par exemple, l'Université de Oou (Nakajima, 1995) et Kagoshima Immaculate Heart Junior College (Iwakiri, Ikeda, and Fujita, 1993). Notre université, qui vient d'ouvrir ses portes en avril 1994, n'a pas encore un tel système. Comment peut-on, dans ces conditions, convaincre les étudiantes (et leurs parents) de l'utilité d'un séjour linguistique entièrement à leur charge? Est-il valable et rentable d'organiser un séjour linguistique? Je vais essayer de répondre à ces questions et quelques autres dans ce rapport.

## L'organisation du séjour linguistique

### *Les étudiantes*

Il s'agit dans notre cas d'étudiantes spécialistes de français de la Faculté d'Etudes Internationales de l'Université du Coeur Immaculé de Kagoshima, une université catholique privée de jeunes filles. En 1995, j'ai proposé aux 13 étudiantes de 2e année (notre première génération d'étudiantes) un séjour linguistique à Strasbourg, France, en février et mars 1996. Ce séjour a été entièrement organisé par moi-même avec l'aide de ma femme Yoshie Lauffenburger-Hashido, et un groupe de 5 étudiantes s'est constitué, que nous avons préparé et accompagné. Comme je ne maitrise pas suffisamment la langue et la culture japonaises, notre université avait accepté sur ma demande que ma femme soit officiellement mon assistante bénévole, mais l'université considérait par ailleurs qu'il s'agissait de mon entreprise purement personnelle. Nous n'avons pas proposé ce séjour aux étudiantes de 1ère année, car nous craignions que leur niveau de français soit insuffisant (5 cours de 90 minutes par semaine x 28 semaines = 210 heures d'enseignement au maximum). Cela est certes discutable, mais nous ne voulions pas prendre de risque pour notre premier essai. De fait, même dans le cas des étudiantes de 2ème année, plusieurs familles d'accueil d'étudiantes du groupe des 5 ont trouvé que le niveau de l'étudiante hébergée était insuffisant pour une communication de base, du moins au début. Parmi les 8 étudiantes spécialistes de français de deuxième année qui ne se sont pas jointes au groupe, 3 avaient déjà séjourné en France en été 1995, et 2 se réservaient pour un séjour ultérieur plus prolongé.

*Le programme*

Les 5 étudiantes ont suivi pendant 5 semaines le cours de français langue étrangère de l'IIEF (Institut International d'Etudes Françaises), un institut autonome de l'USHS (Université des Sciences Humaines de Strasbourg) à Strasbourg . Nous avions choisi cette ville parce que c'est ma ville d'origine, où habite ma famille et où nous, accompagnateurs, pouvions séjourner sans frais de logement supplémentaires. C'est par ailleurs une ville que je connais bien, y compris son université où j'ai fait une partie de mes études. J'avais, lors d'un séjour précédent, négocié avec l'IIEF des conditions particulièrement favorables pour nos étudiantes. Chaque étudiante était hébergée dans une famille d'accueil, que nous avions dû chercher nous-mêmes car l'IIEF ne s'occupe pas de l'hébergement.

Nous avons choisi la période de février-mars pour les deux raisons suivantes:

1) Cette période est plus économique pour les participants. Les billets d'avion, qui représentent une part importante du budget de ce projet (environ la moitié du prix total) , sont bien meilleur marché en février qu'en été.
2) En cette période, on peut voir la France à "l'état normal", alors qu'en été beaucoup de Français, et surtout les jeunes, partent en vacances.

*Les objectifs*

Nos objectifs pour les étudiantes étaient les suivants: leur faire mieux connaitre la société et la culture françaises; les faire progresser en français; leur faire apprendre à vivre et à communiquer avec des francophones. Comme contrôle, j'ai donné à toutes les étudiantes de la même année universitaire, aussi bien celles qui prirent part au séjour linguistique qu'aux autres, le même test à trous avant et après le séjour. D'autre part, nous avons demandé aux familles d'accueil de remplir un questionnaire à la fin du séjour.

Nous avons par ailleurs demandé aux étudiantes avant leur départ, afin de les rendre plus conscientes, d'établir une liste d'objectifs, de buts ou de souhaits (en japonais) des deux points de vue suivants:

1) linguistique;
2) social, culturel, ou autre.

Puis, un mois après leur retour, nous leur avons demandé d'auto-évaluer le degré de réalisation de leurs objectifs.

*Les résultats*

Nous avons évalué notre programme de divers points de vue, à savoir celui: de l'IIEF; des étudiantes; des familles d'accueil; des accompagnateurs; des enseignants de notre université avant et après le séjour. En gros, tout s'est bien passé, et les réactions des étudiantes aussi bien que celles des familles ont été positives, de sorte que nous sommes relativement satisfaits des résultats par rapport à nos objectifs. Ma propre impression positive a été confirmée au cours de l'année par ma collègue française: les étudiantes qui ont suivi le stage de Strasbourg ont progressé des points de vue de la compréhension auditive, de l'expression orale et de la participation en classe; de plus, on note chez elles une plus grande maturité. Ceci est en accord avec le rapport de Ikeda (1993) sur les étudiantes de Kagoshima Junshin Junior College après leur séjour linguistique en Australie.

Selon la post-enquête au retour concernant les objectifs établis par les étudiantes avant leur départ pour la France, celles-ci ont déclaré les avoir en partie atteints (Appendice 1-a). Le fait que le degré de réalisation de leur objectif linguistique n'a pas excédé 50% dans tous les cas sauf un peut être imputé à leurs objectifs trop ambitieux, par exemple "Je voudrais acquérir la capacité de parler couramment le français sans hésitation", ou "Je voudrais pouvoir lire couramment des romans en français." Néanmoins, selon leur auto-évaluation (Appendice 1-b), toutes les participantes ont trouvé que leur capacité linguistique (compréhension auditive, expression orale, compréhension écrite et expression écrite) s'était nettement améliorée, et dans la majorité des cas qu'elle avait au moins doublé.

Les résultats de l'auto-évaluation nous permettent d'affirmer que, grâce à ce séjour linguistique, les étudiantes ont acquis une aptitude à communiquer en français et à fonctionner de façon satisfaisante dans un milieu francophone, et en tout cas qu'elles ont développé une confiance en elles-même qui peut leur être très favorable dans leurs études et leur vie.

Il est cependant à noter qu'aussi bien les étudiantes que les familles d'accueil ont estimé que le séjour avait été trop court et qu'un séjour plus long aurait été plus profitable: le leitmotiv à la fin du séjour était que les étudiantes venaient tout juste de s'adapter et commençaient à bien profiter. La durée idéale d'un séjour linguistique serait un point à étudier à l'avenir.

Quant à l'exploitation du test à trous (voir l'appendice 2), elle a réservé quelques surprises. Elle confirme néanmoins, dans tous les cas de figure, la superiorité linguistique significative des étudiantes ayant séjourné en France. Les tests à trous sont généralement considérés comme révélant bien l'aptitude linguistique générale (Hinofotis, 1987, p. 413). Le deuxième test à trous a dû être donné en deux fois (test A et test B), car une partie des étudiantes n'a pas suivi mon cours du semestre suivant le séjour à Strasbourg. Il est à remarquer par ailleurs que l'étudiante 12 représente un cas particulier: étudiante en difficulté au début de ses études, elle a fait un gros effort pour remonter la pente avant son séjour à Strasbourg, ce qui semble expliquer son bon score au 1er test à trous; par contre, à son retour de Strasbourg, elle n'a plus suivi aucun cours universitaire pendant un semestre, ce qui explique vraisemblablement sa chute de 16 points au 2ème test. Pour ces raisons, ses résultats ne me paraissent pas significatifs; je les ai néanmoins inclus entre parenthèses afin de ne pas donner l'impression de chercher à manipuler les résultats.

## Problémes et Perspectives

### *La préparation*

Il n'y avait eu que quelques séances de préparation technique et culturelle des étudiantes, et l'enquête a révélé qu'elles n'avaient pas été suffisamment préparées psychologiquement et linguistiquement. C'est en grande partie parce que ce programme était hors curriculum et que la plupart de cours n'avaient aucun rapport avec le projet de séjour linguistique. Iwakiri (1993) fait remarquer que le cours donné aux étudiantes préalablement au séjour, traitant les aspects culturels, sociaux, linguistiques, etc., a été utile pour la plupart des participantes. Si l'on souhaite que les étudiantes profitent au mieux d'un séjour linguistique, il faudrait envisager une bonne préparation soit comme une partie intégrale du curriculum, soit sous forme de cours ou de séances hors curriculum.

### *Les familles d'accueil*

Nous sommes convaincus qu'un séjour en famille est la meilleure formule d'hébergement de tous les points de vue, sauf peut-être du point de vue financier, mais c'est une entreprise délicate aussi bien pour trouver les familles d'accueil, que pour le placement lui-même à cause des grandes différences entre les familles d'une part et les étudiantes d'autre part. Il faut également être prêt à faire face à d'éventuels conflits. Nous nous sommes nous-même occupés de la recherche des familles et de la négotiation avec elles, et nous avons trouvé que ceci n'a pas été rentable, parce que c'est un travail qui demande beaucoup de temps, d'énergie et de nerfs. Il serait préférable qu'un responsable sur place s'occupe du placement en familles, comme dans certaines institutions qui proposent des cours de FLE (Français Langue Etrangère).

### *Les accompagnateurs*

C'étaient des intermédiaires indispensables entre les étudiantes, l'IIEF et les familles d'accueil. Ce sont eux qui avaient négocié les conditions de voyage et de séjour, et qui avaient trouvé les familles d'accueil. A l'arrivée à Strasbourg, ils ont fait le lien et ont aidé les étudiantes à s'installer et à surmonter le choc linguistique et psychologique. En particulier, les étudiantes et les familles d'accueil avaient du mal à communiquer au début, il y a eu des frustrations des deux côtés, et la présence et l'intervention des accompagnateurs ont été très utiles. Ils ont également organisé diverses rencontres et sorties. Les étudiantes et les accompagnateurs se sont réunis au moins une fois par semaine pour parler des programmes de la semaine et des éventuels problèmes. Les étudiantes ont beaucoup apprécié tout cela dans l'enquête au retour.

D'autre part, les accompagnateurs étaient bénévoles, et ce séjour linguistique leur a occasionné des frais importants:

leur a occasionné des frais importants: voyage, télécopie et téléphone, transports sur place, etc. Le fait de ne pas avoir de budget pour ce travail s'est donc fait ressentir lourdement pour eux. Si l'on veut continuer ce projet chaque année, ce qui est de toute évidence dans l'intérêt des étudiantes autant que de notre Université, il faudrait à la longue un système pour aider les accompagnateurs, par exemple la prise en charge de tout ou partie de leurs frais par l'Université ou les participantes. Cette dernière solution serait envisageable dans l'hypothèse d'un groupe plus important de participantes.

## Conclusion

Deux étudiantes suivent en ce moment un cours de français d'un semestre à l'IIEF (Université de Strasbourg): de septembre 1996 à janvier ou mars 1997. Ainsi, sur les treize étudiantes spécialistes de français de la première génération (actuellement en troisième année universitaire), dix ont déjà fait ou font actuellement un séjour linguistique en France. Cela crée incontestablement à notre Université une atmosphère positive par rapport aux séjours linguistiques, et le niveau des études de français s'en ressent favorablement. Il faut espérer que cet élan se maintiendra et même s'amplifiera jusqu'à sa généralisation qui me parait des plus souhaitables, car je suis, après cette expérience, plus convaincu que jamais qu'un séjour linguistique est essentiel pour une véritable acquisition linguistique et culturelle. La solution la plus satisfaisante pour tous serait à mon sens l'intégration d'un séjour linguistique dans le curriculum. Il peut s'agir d'un séjour de courte durée comme celui du printemps dernier dont nous venons de parler, ou de plus longue durée: un ou deux semestres. L'expérience des deux jeunes filles étudiant actuellement à Strasbourg devrait nous permettre une meilleure connaissance de l'effet de ce type de séjour.

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Appendice 1-a: Un extrait de l'enquête au retour (Note: les numéros des étudiantes correspondent à ceux de l'appendice 2)

Question: Marquez le degré d'achèvement général de vos buts /100%(en vous référant ce que vous aviez indiqué avant votre départ).

1. Concernant le français

| Etudiante | |
|---|---|
| 9 | 50% |
| 10 | 50% |
| 11 | 50% |
| 12 | 50% |
| 13 | 80% |

2. Vie, culture, autres

| Etudiante | |
|---|---|
| 9 | 70% |
| 10 | 70% |
| 11 | 50% |
| 12 | 80% |
| 13 | 90% |

Appendice 1-b. Un autre extrait de l'enquête au retour

Questions: Auto-évaluez votre capacité en français en la comparant avant et après le séjour en France.
Jugez votre capacité de 0 à 100: 0 = pas capable du tout; 100 ne signifie pas "parfait", mais "capacité comparable à votre capacité en japonais".

| | 1. Compréhension auditive | | 2. Expression orale | | 3. Compréhension écrite | | 4. Expression écrite | | 5. Communication* | | 6. Connaissance** | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Etudiante | avant | après | avant | après | avant | après | avant | après | avant | après | avant | après |
| 9 | 30 | 50 | 30 | 50 | 10 | 30 | 5 | 30 | 30 | 60 | 30 | 50 |
| 10 | 30 | 60 | 30 | 55 | 40 | 65 | 35 | 65 | 35 | 55 | 35 | 70 |
| 11 | 0 | 50 | 0 | 25 | 0 | 25 | 0 | 20 | 0 | 30 | 0 | 25 |
| 12 | 10 | 50 | 10 | 50 | 20 | 50 | 20 | 50 | 10 | 50 | 20 | 50 |
| 13 | 45 | 60 | 30 | 60 | 45 | 55 | 45 | 60 | 45 | 75 | 50 | 75 |

*Capacité générale à communiquer selon la situation, en utilisant toute ses connaisances et des gestes, etc.

**Connaissance de la vie et de la culture françaises.

**Appendice 2:** Résultats du test à trous

| Etudiantes spécialistes de français Avril 1994- | Séjour linguistique Eté 1995 | 1er test à trous 31/1/96 /**100** | Séjour linguistique Printemps 1996 | 2e test à trous A 20/6/96 /100 | 2e test à trous B 14/10/96 /**100** | Séjour linguistique actuel Sept. 1996- | Différence entre le 1er et le 2e test à trous |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Groupe I | | | | | | | |
| 1 | | 40 | | | 42 | | +2 |
| 2 | | 46 | | 36 | | | -10 |
| 3 | | 47 | | 34.5 | | Strasbourg | -13.5 |
| 4 | | 51 | | 59 | | | +8 |
| 5 | Angers | 51 | | | 46 | | -5 |
| 6 | Tours | 58 | | | 66.5 | | +8.5 |
| 7 | Tours | 60 | | 61 | | | +1 |
| 8 | | 65 | | 73 | | Strasbourg | +8 |
| Groupe II | | | | | | | |
| 9 | | 30 | Strasbourg | | 39 | | +9 |
| 10 | | 39 | Strasbourg | 49.5 | | | +10.5 |
| 11 | | 54 | Strasbourg | 59 | | | +5 |
| 12 | | 69 | Strasbourg | | 53 | | -16 |
| 13 | | 75.5 | Strasbourg | 72 | | | -3.5 |

Le groupe I regroupe les étudiantes n'ayant pas fait de séjour linguistique de français entre le 1er et le 2e test à trous, alors que le groupe II regroupe les étudiantes ayant fait un tel séjour.

Différence moyenne entre les résultats aux 1er et 2e test par groupe I et II (entre parenthèses, les chiffres incluant l'étudiante 12 *):
Groupe I  Total -1/8 = -0.125%
Groupe II  Total +28/4 = +7% (Total +12/5 = +2.4%)

Résultats aux deux tests à trous regroupés selon le critère: A = n'ont pas séjourné en France, B = ont séjourné en France (entre parenthèses, les résultats incluant l'étudiante 12). Tous les chiffres indiquent la moyenne du groupe.
1er test A 49.72  B 56.33  Différence +6.61% (51.5, Diff. +4,48%)
2e test  A 48.90  B 56.14  Différence +7.24% (55.75, Diff. +6.85%)

* Explication dans le texte.

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# Everything You Need To Know Begins At Kindergarten

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This paper begins with the premise that the more we know about our students, the better we can serve them as language teachers. "Serving our students," for the purpose of this discussion, means creating a positive environment in which English learning takes place. "Knowing our students" divides into three broad categories: 1) cultural background; 2) social and educational background; and 3) personal and family background.

In the context of living and working in Japan, the first category, culture learning, is a part of daily life. Teachers who know something about Japanese culture and who bring that knowledge to the classroom can relate better to students than teachers who know nothing about their students' cultural backgrounds. Teachers who create opportunities to communicate with students, both in and out of class, can learn about students' personal lives (category 3) — family situations, friends, home and school life, etc. This information enhances the teacher's recognition of students as individuals with various abilities and needs, not just as numbers on a class roster.

College teachers often miss out on the second category, knowing about students' social and educational backgrounds, particularly if they haven't had experience teaching or interacting with younger students. In my case, I feel fortunate to have been able to teach at Japanese junior and senior high schools before I became a college teacher in Sapporo. Those experiences gave me insight into the socialization and educational training of students, aged 12 through 18. Three years ago, I had the opportunity to enter the world of kindergarten, where I was able to observe the same approaches to socialization and education, this time from the beginning of formal education. It then occurred to me that these approaches could and should be carried through in college classes, even those taught by non-Japanese teachers.

This paper will outline five aspects of kindergarten life, based on my experience as teacher and observer at Seishu Fuzoku Yochien, (MacGregor, 1996) and how I have integrated them into my college classes at Seishu Junior College.

## Structure

At kindergarten, there is a set structure to the day. This is in marked contrast to home life, where, at least until children enter kindergarten, they can pretty well do what they like, when they like. An example of the daily routine at kindergarten is the opening of each day: children come in, change their shoes at the door, enter the classroom and put their coats, hats, and bags away. The class formally begins with a spoken greeting, bowing, and a greeting song. Next, the day, date, and weather are checked. Then, attendance is taken by roll call, followed by the distribution of attendance stickers by the teacher which children put in their attendance books. Songs and signals act as markers that define the sections of the day. The teacher uses the piano to play different tunes which children learn to identify as signals to clean up their toys, get ready for lunch, get ready to go home, etc.

The structure exhibited in the kindergarten day is noteworthy for two reasons. First, once children learn the routine, they know what is expected of them every day, and therefore can relax and move with confidence and ease. Second, the guidelines for kindergarten education set out by the Ministry of Education states that children should "experience things important to their development by demonstrating their abilities in an emotionally secure environment" (Ministry of Education, 1989, p.1). The structurally secure environment provided by the daily schedule helps create this desired emotionally secure environment.

At college, too, teachers need to foster a sense of trust in and by the students and create an environment where they feel safe and secure. One way to do this is is to provide some sort of routine or structure to the lesson. Students will feel less anxiety if they know what is expected of them. Critics may say that a fixed structure takes away the spontaneity of the lesson, restricts the creativity of the teacher, and puts students to sleep. While this may be true to some extent, too much spontaneity leaves students confused and helpless. The net result is that they won't participate in the lesson simply because they don't know what to do.

There are ways to introduce structure into the lesson that will not impede the lively atmosphere many teachers work hard to create. For example, using a good textbook in which the presentation of materials and structure of the activities is consistent from unit to unit gives students a visible anchor, which, if it is mastered during the first unit, will steer them through the rest of the book. Classroom procedures such as taking attendance and collecting and returning homework can be standardized to contribute to a structured setting. Letting students know exactly how much time they have to do an activity can help define the parameters of the lesson: knowing they have 5 minutes to complete a task will focus students' attention and keep the class running efficiently.

## The Group

Since kindergarten is one of the first socialization experiences outside of the home, it is not surprising that one of the goals of preschool education set out by the Ministry of Education is to "teach the joy and importance of relationships with others by the experiences the children gain in group life..." (Ministry of Education, 1989, p.4). At kindergarten, activities are done sometimes as a class, sometimes in small groups of 4-6 children, and rarely in pairs, unless the activity is a game or dance. Groups are of three different types: fixed teacher-selected, child selected (i.e. free-play groups), or formed by lottery. Different groupings give children opportunities to interact with many others during the kindergarten day (i.e., work groups, lunch groups, seating groups).

In college English classes, pair and group activities are popular means of maximizing students' L2 "talk time." Sometimes, however, this approach fails because either students don't talk at all, or they revert to speaking in Japanese. Why do groups fail here when they worked so well at kindergarten? Simply put, we are dealing with young adults, not with 3-to-5-year-olds. Furthermore, we are not working in a real-life situation as kindergarten children are when they are asked to build or make something together in their groups; we are working in a contrived setting because we are asking students with the same mother tongue to communicate with each other in a foreign language. Therefore, it is completely natural that students feel uncomfortable talking with their peers in English; they are anxious about making mistakes and about damaging their self-image. How can teachers minimize this anxiety? One way is to vary the way pairs and groups are selected by occasionally letting students pair or group themselves with their friends. Obviously, pairing up with a friend to practice the question, "What did you do last weekend?" doesn't make much sense because the friends have probably already discussed their weekend activities together in Japanese. The key for teachers is to be sensitive to students' self-consciousness and to strike a balance between student-selected and teacher-selected groups appropriate to the activity. Japanese students see groups as places to work together. Teachers must support this by creating a positive environment for groups to function.

## Step-By-Step Learning/Repetition/Review

Step-by-step instruction is integral to kindergarten life. The following example of how scissors were introduced clearly illustrates this step-by-step process. First, the teacher showed the children a large pair of scissors she had made from cardboard and foil for this demonstration. She talked about what scissors could and could not be used for. Then she reviewed the information with the children: "Can we use scissors to cut our hair? Our skin? Our clothes?" To each question, the children answered with a loud, "No." Then, the teacher asked, "Can we use scissors to cut paper?" All answered, "Yes." Next, the teacher demonstrated how to hold and use scissors. The children modelled her actions using "imaginary" scissors. After showing them how to handle, pass and receive them, she gave each of the children his/her own pair of scissors. At last, the children were allowed to try cutting paper with their scissors. As well as heightening the anticipation of being able to use scissors by themselves, children learned the process as a series of steps.

At college, the concept of teaching step-by-step can be applied as a layered approach to introducing and using new language. For example, a topic can be introduced by moving gradually from the general to the specific, or put another way, from the familiar to the unfamiliar. Listening exercises in good textbooks generally ask first for general information then for specific information about a taped excerpt. Receptive activities (i.e. where students select answers from a list) precede productive activities (i.e. where students generate the response completely on their own).

Once the procedure has been explained, it is practised over and over again. In the same kindergarten class, children were taught how to make origami dogs. After finishing their first one, they happily made another, then another, then another. By the end of origami time, children had made five or six origami dogs each. Ruth Benedict offered the following explanation for this kind of repetition: "It is the habit that is taught, not just the rules,...the movements are performed over and over literally under the hands of grownups until they are automatic" (in Hendry, 1986, p.102). The saying, "practice makes perfect" certainly holds true here, with a greater emphasis on the practice, or the process, than the result.

College teachers need to remember to repeat and review material. It is easy to fall into the habit of working steadily through a course or textbook, and not take time to look back. Without clear direction from the teacher, however, students are unlikely to practice or review material themselves. Regular homework, and periodic review activities and tests will encourage students to make review and reflection a natural part of the learning process.

## Curiosity

One of the most refreshing aspects of teaching at kindergarten is that the children are full of questions which they are eager to ask. They are very curious about their Canadian teacher — why she has brown hair, why she can speak English, where she lives, what she eats. They also want to talk about themselves and any opportunities to do so are exploited fully.

Although they might not be quite as energetic, college students have questions for their teachers, too. They are interested in knowing about us as people. Therefore, it is important to share our experiences with them -- they remember our stories! While teachers are right to be wary of too much "teacher talk," spending a few minutes from time to time to simply talk about themselves, to explain something about their culture, or to give their views on a current topic, is not only interesting, but is also good listening comprehension practice. Students who understand the story, or at least part of it, will have a great sense of achievement. The others who can't keep up will get it in translation from their friends.

## Motivation

Kindergarten children are highly self-motivated. Generally speaking, they need little in the way of encouragement to get involved. Even so, teachers spend a lot of time preparing and explaining the purpose of activities. One day, a teacher planned to have students draw pictures to reflect on the operetta that the kindergarten had performed the previous weekend. She set up the activity by saying,

> See your pictures on the wall
> behind us now? They're the ones
> we made way back in September

> after sports day. Now, you know, next week your mothers will visit kindergarten, and if we leave those pictures up your mothers will say, 'Oh, those pictures are so old. We saw them the last time we visited kindergarten. Can't these children draw anything new?' Let's not disappoint your mothers. Let's draw beautiful pictures of the operetta.

Even without this explanation, the children probably would have been quite happy to draw the pictures. However, the added motivation of their mothers' visit and the responsibility bestowed on them by the teacher, guaranteed that every child would do his/her best.

At college, we can also motivate our students to want/need to get involved. The key is to give them a reason for doing so. For example, practicing how to tell time can be helpful preparation for travelling abroad (which more and more students are doing these days); assigning short speeches help develop public speaking skills which are important in job interviews (some of which are partly conducted in English). Stronger incentives for participation include bonus point systems and giving separate grades for attendance. To focus students' attention and motivate their curiosity and participation, puzzles and questions with an element of mystery to them are guaranteed to spark interest.

## Conclusion

The above paper has provided an outline of five teaching approaches that are integral to kindergarten education, and some concrete steps towards integrating them at the college level. No doubt there are many more areas that need to be taken into consideration in order to create a satisfying college learning environment for both teachers and students. By taking a few steps back, even as far as kindergarten, teachers can gain perspective on how this can be achieved.

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# Native Americans and Europeans, Ainu and Wajin: Culturally Relevant EFL Content-Based Social Studies Comparative History Curriculum Design at a Japanese Junior College

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Content based language teaching has been described as "the concurrent teaching of academic subject matter and second language skills." (Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 1989). Some studies on language content have indicated broad issues of cultural relevance for students that arise from the type of world English taught (Kachru, 1996) or the inclusion or exclusion of the students' mother languages in instruction (Auerbach, 1993). Movements within the language teaching profession represented by organizations such as Linguapax or global issues interest groups have stressed the relationship of language learning to teaching about culture and society. (Marti, 1996; Dyer & Bushell, 1996). Social studies curricula have also been linked to national goals such as the movement for a multicultural curriculum in the United States. (Furmanovsky, 1995)

This paper will examine the relationship of students' cultural identities to curriculum design decisions involving the selection of social studies content, pedagogical process, and classroom management. The classroom is a complex web of culture going beyond national identity, involving locations of gender, class, race, ethnicity, age, and other identities or experiences of members, teachers and students alike. Each individual entering the classroom carries a unique social/cultural identity, and a unique history of learning and experience. The English as a Foreign Language (EFL) content based social studies curriculum takes place within this web and its content examines some aspect of human society and culture. Can an examination of this relationship help us make curricula more culturally relevant?

Paulo Freire (1970) identifies two kinds of education: banking education and education for critical consciousness. In banking education the teacher deposits information in the students' minds as one might deposit money or valued possessions in a bank. The teacher, the active subject of the exchange, is the valued location of knowledge. The students, not seen as locations of knowledge, are passive objects receiving that knowledge. Freire proposes a new pedagogy, education for critical consciousness, which engages students and teachers together in an active process of critical reflection and praxis in dialogue with the world around them.

bell hooks (1994), coming from the location of an American multicultural college classroom, broadens Freire's focus by including students' cultural locations of class, race, gender, age and other identities and their influence on student voice in creating a climate for education for critical consciousness.

> Accepting the decentering of the West globally, embracing multiculturalism, compels educators to focus attention on the issue of voice. Who speaks? Who listens? And why? (hooks, 1994, p. 40).

For Freire and hooks, education — involving critical consciousness — is culturally relevant to all of the members of the classroom, teacher and student alike, because it is a dialog in the cultural codes of the members about the cultural world they find themselves engaged in. A pedagogy that does not take students' voice or cultural codes into account, and encourage critical consciousness, retards or prevents education.

The location of voice is particularly important for language learning. Critical reflection requires meaningful language production as students and teacher write/read speak/listen to each other's knowledge and reflect on the dialogue critically. A focus on student voice requires the kind of active and meaningful use of the target language that many educators have claimed is necessary for successful language learning (Krashen, 1982).

The location of voice is also important in creating culturally relevant content in the EFL content based class. Each student speaks from a unique cultural location of class, gender, race, or other identity. As the teacher engages with student voice, the content of the curriculum can be adjusted to meet students' cultural needs. Student reflection/criticism also can influence the pedagogical approach. In this way, the class becomes more and more culturally relevant to all its members.

In the banking approach, the teacher as expert decides the cultural relevance and only the teacher's voice is heard. Often unaware of students' unique cultural experience, the teacher has no data on which to base curriculum design decisions apart from his/her own experience or observation of passive students.

In education for critical consciousness, each student is a valued location of knowledge, essential to the class. Each student investigates texts and the voices of other members of the class and creates knowledge in a community of critical reflection. The classroom becomes decentralized. As students explore new problems, they need access to large amounts of knowledge. In an EFL teaching situation, that knowledge is often not available in the target language; however, there may be a wealth of textual sources in the students' native language(s). Furthermore, new technologies, such as the Internet, may be especially useful in providing a variety of target language sources. (Halvorsen & Gettings, 1996; Gettings, 1997).

Teachers must adjust the content the class covers and use methods suitable for the mix of cultural locations and codes students bring to each individual classroom. The teacher approaches curriculum design with the same process of critical reflection and praxis that students use in approaching content. The teacher might design materials based on dialogues with students and his/her own understanding of the target content. As the class becomes engaged with each other's reflections, the curriculum is adjusted or may even take on a new direction. It is at this point that the curriculum becomes truly relevant culturally and personally to students.

In this way, the problem-posing educator constantly re-forms his reflections in the reflections of the students. The students — no longer docile listeners — are now critical co-investigators in dialogue with the teacher. The teacher presents the material to the students for their consideration, and re-considers his earlier considerations as the students express their own. (Freire, 1970, p. 68)

## An EFL History unit: Ainu and Wajin, Native Americans and Europeans — What was similar? What was different?

The author has taught History to second year junior college English majors in Hokkaido, Japan for the past four years. During that time, themes of gender, national identity and ethnicity have often arisen in dialogues with students and he has used a problem posing approach concerning these themes in the study of units on comparative North American, United States, Japanese, Hawaiian, and Korean History.

Following is a description of one unit, comparing North American and Japanese History. For the teacher to identify his own voice is an important part of the curriculum development process. The writing of this paper itself, has been part of an ongoing process of critical reflection/praxis in the author's development of the curriculum. The teacher is not an objective academic "he" being described, but an active subject "I" in an historic context of dialogue with the voices of students. Because of this, the first person, rather than the academic third person will be used in the following description.

The pedagogical approach was to present students with information from a variety of points of view in texts and lectures. Students would identify points of view and distinguish fact, opinion, and the authors' selection of facts in the texts. Students would explore their own knowledge in small group discussion and journal writing related to the general themes, discuss differences and similarities in the two histories, and make decisions about their own point of view of the history of contact between indigenous peoples and colonizers.

In designing this unit, I chose these themes because national identity, race, ethnicity, and a sense that Japanese were different from all other peoples were constant themes in discussions with students. Also, class members were living in Hokkaido, one of the homes of the Ainu people. I hoped that students would find the unit interesting and gain a richer sense of their history and national identity as Japanese.

The texts included the voices of Native Americans (Reyna,1992), European and European-Americans (O'Calaghan, 1990; USIA, publication date unlisted), Ainu (Kayano, 1994; Ainu Minzoku Hakubutsukan, 1993) and Wajin (Enomoto, 1983). I also presented my own and other points of view in lectures.

At first, students read stories of European explorers (O'Calaghan, 1990; USIA, publication date unlisted) and examined the point of view of the writers. I lectured on some of the negative aspects of contact with Europeans: the spread of disease, loss of land, disruption of economy, suppression of culture, and the psychological aspects of conquest. Students discussed what parts of the story they would include in a history of contact between Europeans and Native Americans. Following was a lecture and reading on the frontier in North America as multicultural — a mix of North American and European cultural groups. The Iroquois-English and French-Huron alliances and the status of women in Japanese, English, and Iroquois society in the 1600s were compared. Students discussed which situation they felt was best for women.

After completing the North American segment of the curriculum I intended to rely on students' knowledge of Japanese History and add only a few details in lecture before I asked them to compare similarities and differences between North America and Japan. However, during a brainstorm to see what they could remember about Ainu-Wajin history, most students stated that the didn't know or hadn't learned any relevant information in secondary school. The images of Ainu people that arose during discussion were mostly based on racial caricatures. Students expressed the belief that there were either no more Ainu living in Hokkaido or that they only worked in resort areas such as tourist villages.

Students did not have the information that I had expected. The lesson plan could not continue as I had planned it. Also, another question arose that was related to the curriculum. How would students' views of Japanese minorities effect their understanding of Japanese History or of themselves as Japanese?

I pursued these issues by asking students to discuss questions in small groups and report their results to the class. What were the major minority groups in Japan? Had they ever met members of these minority groups? How could they tell if they had met a member of a minority group?

Most students could not list more than one or two of the major groups: Ainu, Korean-Japanese, Chinese-Japanese, Ryukyu-jin, or burakumin. After these minority groups were identified, most students were certain that they had never met a minority group member because the person's face, clothing, way of speaking Japanese, or social customs would have been different. However, when each minority group was discussed and students were asked what characteristics were different, it was decided that, in fact, the differences between minority and majority Japanese were almost invisible.

Following this we explored the reasons why differences were kept invisible in Japan. I asked students to personalize the discussion by imagining what they would feel if they were an elementary student and a member of a minority. Would they want their classmates to know their minority identity?

The problems related to minorities in Japan that I posed for student discussion were new to the curriculum. They developed as I listened and responded to students' reflections and students listened and responded to mine. I realized that I had not included Ainu voices in the content and that students had not heard these voices even though they were in the Japanese media. Desperately searching for a way to include these voices, I found English and Japanese resources on the Internet and a colleague loaned me a private video tape of a speech by Kayano Shigeru, a representative from Hokkaido who is Ainu, to the Japanese Diet.

The unit ended with a video on Pueblo History (Reyna, 1992), a discussion of "Columbus, the Indians and Human Progress" (Zinn, 1980) and writing an essay based on the comparison of the histories of Japan and North America and the points of view of the colonizers and the colonized.

## Reflections on the pedagogical process of the unit

As part of the process of critical reflection/praxis, the teacher engages with student voices, reflects on the messages or criticism, and adjusts the pedagogical process or content of the curriculum. This kind of engagement is often uncomfortable, especially when the teacher makes mistakes or misunderstands the students' knowledge or cultural locations. Nevertheless, the process is always valuable because it is a rich source of data for improving curriculum design.

Before the lesson I had posed several problems for myself related to pedagogical process. What effects did my location of race, national identity, gender, and as teacher have on the process of discussion? Issues of race, ethnicity, and caste are near invisible and not important to most majority Japanese. Was I forcing an issue? Were these issues really culturally relevant? During the course of the lesson four major problems were posed from engagement with students:

1. Was I forcing student voice by requiring them to express an answer to a question in front of the entire class?
2. Was I including Ainu voices in the process?;
3. Was I adjusting the process in consideration for the members of the class who might be invisible minority members, especially Ainu?
4. Was I ignoring gender in the content, process and cultural codes of the classroom?

My reflection from observation of class discussions and student feedback was that I was not addressing these problems adequately. I attempted to address the forcing of voice by reducing whole class discussions, allowing students to pass, and putting the emphasis on reflection in small groups or private journal writing. I attempted to find more Ainu sources as the class progressed. Although I tried to ease tension that invisible class minority members might feel by asking students to imagine and discuss hypothetical situations, and by sharing my and friends' experience as minorities, I feel that this alone was not adequate. Finally, the texts and lectures included women's stories but were mediated by a "neutral" male voice. In the future, I want to include texts that speak from a location of gender, both male and female. My students are especially interested in gender because of their location as young women beginning adult lives experiencing increasing gender discrimination in the job market.

## Conclusion

The classroom is a complex web of culture going beyond national identity, involving locations of gender, class, race, ethnicity, age, and other identities or experiences of members. In order to create a culturally relevant learning environment, the voices of all members must be engaged in the learning process. Freire's approach of critical consciousness and hooks' attention to student voice, cultural codes, and the locations of gender, class, and race offer teachers two valuable models for curriculum development and pedagogical practice. Engagement with student voice requires constant alteration of the content and pedagogical process of the curriculum. Although this engaged pedagogy has its difficulties, it provides a rich source of the kind of data that is essential for developing curricula that is culturally relevant to students.

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# Folklore in the ESL Classroom

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Folklore, a language-rich medium which manifests itself in myriad expressions, recipes, customs, tales, myths, legends, superstitions, rituals, riddles, games, and art, is communicative in nature. Folklore is meant to be heard, felt, sung, written, spoken, and, in some cases, even eaten. Like language, folklore endures as long as it remains meaningful to human beings' lives as it is "diffused through time (passed down through generations) and space" (spread from one region to another), (Georges and Jones, 1995). Certainly, the Hmong's Pandau Flower Cloths, colorfully embroidered quilts originally designed to depict familial rites of passage, but later used to recount the Hmong's horrific escape to freedom across the Mekong River at the end of the Vietnam War (Conquergood, 1992), give testimony to a folklore sample's ability to adapt itself to the changing times.

Undoubtedly, folklore also represents a moveable mosaic of cultures, mirroring the traditions of diverse peoples who create them and the vast regions from which they spring and to which they spread. The Jack Tales (originally from Scotland and England) were used to teach children acceptable norms of behavior within the Appalachian community. Through storyteller Ray Hicks' renditions of "Whickity Whack: Death in a Sack," children learned the values of self-sufficiency and fairness to others, in spite of class distinctions (Higgs, Manning, and Miller, 1995). Folklore survivals can also preserve values such as respect for life, peace and harmony as seen in the ancient Origin tales of the Hopi Native Americans of Arizona (Wilson, 1994).

In this paper, I hope to shed some light on folklore's versatility for teaching English as a second language and on its potential for communicating across cultures. The paper presents an argument for using folklore as a springboard to design and integrate listening, reading, writing, and speaking activities that, although at first may seem pedagogic in design, can still lead to communicative and creative uses of language in the classroom. Several graphic organizers, some suggestions for using folktales, and a brief list of recommended folktales are provided.

### Communication: A Social Event

In any act of communication it takes a willingness on the part of both sender and receiver to do what is necessary in order to be understood. As quite often the case, communication between two parties takes place in a social context, (Berns, 1990) and, therefore, gestures, face to face contact, pausing before responding, and other paralinguistic gestures employed in the real world occur when trying to communicate (Hymes, 1974).

Naturally, scholars believe that teachers should design learning tasks for the classroom which most resemble these kinds of problem-solving strategies for communicating in real world situations such as asking for directions to a company conducting job interviews or ordering from a menu, etc. (Nunan,1989).

### The Battle Between the Tasks: Pedagogical or Communicative?

The debate over the value of pedagogical tasks as opposed to communicative tasks is a heated one at best. In effect, since pedagogical tasks require students to do things in the classroom that would rarely be done outside the classroom (such as listening to an audio tape of a news program and having to take a quiz on the topic introduced), scholars argue that they are less meaning-focused and should not be stressed as much as communicative tasks (Nunan, 1989). For example, Nunan points out that having students listen to a weather forecast to decide whether or not to bring an umbrella to work is based in real world kinds of communication more than it is in pedagogic activities, because it demands that language learners engage in problem solving, something senders and receivers of messages do when they try to "negotiate for meaning" in the real world (Nunan, 1989).

Yet, there are difficulties in differentiating a communicative task from a pedagogic one, since some tasks may be pedagogical in structure but communicative in application — although they are done in class, they could conceivably be done in the real world as well. (Nunan, 1989). For example, note taking is an in-class activity, vital to students' success in their course work, yet also an activity necessary for a number of occupations in the real world, such as journalism or business.

On the contrary, there are communicative tasks that would rarely be done in the real world but contain authentic language, some of which may be used in real-life contexts (Nunan, 1989). For instance, creative activities such as dramas and imaginative role-plays use authentic language, yet, it is hardly likely that students will have an opportunity to perform a folk cure, let alone receive one, in the real world. However, it is possible that while practicing how to perform a folk cure in class, a humorous activity to break up the ice, students can learn medical terminology about disease, how to give advice in the form of if-conditionals and imperatives, and learn the social dynamic of what to do and say when visiting the doctor to explain symptoms of illness.

The question still nags: what can be done to encourage learners to partake in a number of language activities as they try to solve the overall problem of being understood? How do we get students to, in the words of Nunan, "put language to use?" (Nunun, 1989)

### A Treatise for Teaching Folklore

First and foremost, we should develop activities that students enjoy doing. As previously stated, folklore provides a multitude of interesting trivia and humorous stories, but unless the activities created from the materials can spin off relevant themes of interest to students, unless they can provide chances for students to experience them from their unique perspectives, and unless they can decode some of the complex language typical of authentic materials ( i.e. jargon, idioms, and other regional varieties) students may lose interest in the materials, and teachers may lose an opportunity to supplement their lesson plans with some fun and exciting learning tasks.

Perhaps one available compromise

would be to build a bridge between both pedagogical and communicative tasks through the use of advanced organizers that ease learners into a number of integrated speaking and listening activities. Schemata theory research suggests that schematic organizers and pre-thinking activities supply students with background knowledge which may aid their comprehension of texts (Omaggio Hadley,1993). For example, if teaching a tale about a character who shows impatience by rolling his eyes, one can create a pre-thinking task for the students: matching phrases to pictures of gestures, followed by a speaking task in which pair groups discuss their results and then perform a skit using the gestures before reading the folktale. So, if, for example, students in Japan do not use this expression to show impatience, perhaps the condition for the context can be created for the students through first a graphic organizer and then a speaking and listening activity to aid their comprehension.

## Conclusion

Although I agree that good lessons require realistic goals, as well as good materials, if lessons are to have some positive effect on our students, I have found that the quality of materials can sometimes make or break a lesson. Overall, my motives for using folklore were to provide diverse texts and materials to create opportunities for students to learn about other cultures and respond to them from their experiences, to provide some cohesion in the themes and the sequencing of the tasks, to integrate, as much as possible, the powerful mediums of language folklore provides (that which can be heard, spoken, gestured, written, read, and created), to provide opportunities for students to create language in role plays and dramas, and to be sensitive to the idea that they might need visual cues and other kinds of organizers to help them build background knowledge to grasp the meaning of some of the materials — especially when working with authentic materials.

## Rationale for Some Materials Used in Class: Working with Origin Tales

In this unit I used a number of materials with converging themes in order to give second-year university students both practical skills to apply in the real world. as well as to encourage them to make connections between the texts and their experiences. A number of graphic organizers were used to break up the complexity of the folktale's language and length and to ease the students into listening and speaking activities before they actually read the tale and before they wrote an origin tale of their own. The popular African American origin tale, "How the Snake Got his Rattles," as told by Julius Lester (1969), is a hilarious but moving tale about a snake who cannot avoid being stepped on since he has no way of alerting others to his location in the forest. As a result, he complains a lot about being stepped on.

As a way to bounce off the theme of complaining in the tale and to give students the chance to complain about something in their lives, I provided them with a graphic organizer of various phrases to use when making complaints. Next, they listened to a summary of the folktale and in groups wrote down all the characters' complaints every time they heard them, before actually reading the folktale.

Another material, a folk song about an illegal alien living in the United States, "My Name Joe" by Dave Massengill (1989), was played in class. Students were given an organizer to match the idioms to their meanings in the song and discuss in pairs the concepts — what does it mean to be an outsider in the song? In Japan? In their day-to-day lives?

Finally, in preparation for writing the origin tale, students returned to the "Snake" folktale to discuss what Snake was missing (his rattles) and how his loss affected the action in the story. Later we chose an object (a squid) from which to model an origin tale in class. Inspired by Snake's anatomical loss, we created a Squid who could not swim. In a brainstorming session we asked: What kinds of problems would Squid have if he could not swim? How would Squid solve his problems? Would Squid have friends to help him solve his problems?

In a speaking and listening task students were given the name of a Japanese food and had to guess the name of their partner's food. Each student had to describe the food to his or her partner. Later, they used the descriptions gleaned from their guessing game to help them write a short origin tale about the food. Some exceptional tales were written; one student's origin tale stood out among the others, "Why is O-Mochi Sticky?"

### Working with Recipes

Students interviewed their partners about their favorite foods. Later, they compared them to foods from different regions to build upon background knowledge before writing a recipe for making O-Mochi. Students compared Fasenachts of the Pennsylvania Dutch to O-Mochi, using an organizer and interview chart.

### Ideas to Think About when Using Folktales in Class

1. Do folktales have parallels between the themes of the tales and the issues students face in their lives? My students were interested in foods, health, and popular culture, so my classes used similar themes: health and beauty/folk cures; foods/recipes from different regions of America; and popular culture/ heroic folktales.

2. Can interesting tangents be siphoned from the main topic to create new tasks that lead to use of other authentic materials? For example, in a Hopi origin tale "Coyote Decorates the Sky," students interviewed each other about poems and songs with stars in them before reading the folktale.

3. Do the tales introduce "appropriate" content. Beware; some tales have ethnic slurs and sexist language. How could you use these kinds of tales to teach respect for people of diverse cultures?

4. Is the complexity of the dialect manageable? How can you use this complexity to your advantage — to teach grammar and reductions?

5. Can students perform roles to increase their understanding of the tale? Students might take the role of an investigative reporter to interview another student portraying the main hero of the folktale. Are there opportunities for the teacher and students to perform the tale together?

6. Can the folktale be dissected? For example, can the ending be removed so that students can write a new ending or vice versa?

7. Can the folktale be personalized to create a sense of place — reset in a student's hometown or recast with someone the student knows: a friend, relative, teacher, or you?

### Some Multicultural Folktales with Universal Themes

Here is a short list of world folktales mentioned for their relevance to "Crossing Borders" and their universal appeal to those committed to making connections across cultures.

"Hiaka," a Hawaiian folktale; (*Cut from the same cloth: American women of myth, legend, and tall tale*, by San Souci/Pinkney, Philomel Books, New York, 1993, pp.121-128). Themes: love triangle, power struggles, reconciliation, peace and war.

"Buddha Prevents A War," a folktale from India, (*Peace tales: World folktales to talk about*, by Margaret Read Macdonald, Linnet Books, 1992, pp. 89-90). Themes: reason, problem solving, compromise, peace and war.

"The Fly," a Vietnamese folktale, (*Favorite folktales from around the world*, by Jane Yolen, Pantheon Books, New York, 1986, pp. 55-57). Themes: triumph over injustice, the underdog, reason and common sense.

"The Dancing Children," a folktale from the Onondoga Native Americans, (*Multicultural myths and legends: Stories and activities to* *promote cultural awareness*, by Tara McCarthy, Scholastic Professional Books, 1994, pp. 89-90). Themes: unrealistic demands, compromise, cooperation.

"Why People Speak Many Languages," a Seneca Native American folktale, (*Spinning tales weaving hope: Stories of peace, justice and the environment*, by Joseph Bruchac, New Society Publishers, Philadelphia, Pa., 1992, pp. 160-1). Themes: peace and harmony, barriers, group versus the individual, and the power of language.

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# Redefining our Educational Parameters

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JALT 1996 has given us an opportunity to consider the constructs within which we pursue our profession. In particular, the conference asked us to reflect on the 'barriers' that influence the decisions we make in designing curriculae. The 'barriers' mentioned in plenary sessions and in individual presentations included the gap between the classroom and the real world and the differences in approaches taken to English education . In addition, Dr. Kachru made an eloquent argument for redefining the way we view World Englishes, thereby encouraging participants to deconstruct the 'barriers' that exist between the Englishes spoken and taught in regions as geographically diverse as Indonesia and England. Furthermore, the delegation from Linguapax argued that the languages taught around the world can be an instrument for cross-cultural understanding both across and within national borders. Finally, many presentations gave concrete illustrations of how teachers can use global issues in their EFL classes to bridge the 'boundaries' that exist between disciplines. As we make the transition from this fruitful and important discussion back into the reality of the classroom, we should appraise our work for its ability to address the questions posed at JALT '96. The Model United Nations has the potential to address many of these concerns.

## The MUN in an EFL context

'The Model United Nations is a simulation of the United Nations system in which learners take on the role of delegates to specific countries to debate issues of international import. Muldoon (1992, p. 2) has stated that the Model United Nations (MUN) serves a tripartite educational objective of content, process and product. As learners prepare for their participation at the actual event - the product, they go through the process of researching and developing a specialized understanding of the issue and their assigned country's position on the issue - the content. In terms of EFL tasks, the MUN is an elaborate jigsaw activity in which learners not only exchange unique knowledge, but are also made responsible for the retrieval and acquisition of specialized information. Furthermore, they must work together in cooperation with their teachers to create a shared schema regarding the topic of their MUN conference and the proceedings of the United Nations. While the ability of the MUN to help students cross the 'borders' of cultural understanding are most transparent, the MUN in the EFL setting also disintegrates many of the perceived 'barriers' discussed at the 1996 JALT conference.

## Redefining the educational environment

The very decision to conduct an MUN liberates the students and teachers from the bindings of a single text and casts them into the exciting, if somewhat uncertain, rapids of content-based instruction. Caught in the flow of information, the skipper and crew are left to the devices of their collective decision making abilities and their skill in resourcing information. Each one of the decisions made in the planning process helps define the boundaries of the entire educational experience. First, one needs to decide the issue that will be discussed by the students. Secondly, the organizers need to determine which UN body would normally debate the chosen issue. Once this decision has been made, one can quickly learn which countries are represented in the given UN body at a given time. These countries will be the ones that the participants in the MUN will research and eventually represent. Finally, the planners need to decide who the participants in the MUN will be. The decisions regarding which topic, which UN body, which countries and which participants are required of all MUNs and each one of these decisions allows the organizers to challenge the 'barriers' that may exist in the minds of the delegates as well as those that persist in the views held by institutional administrators.

The first decision that must be made is perhaps the most important as it regards the topic of the MUN conference. While the proceedings of the UN provides a plethora of agenda items to discuss, the curriculum planner is well advised to take their time in making the decision of which topic to debate as the topic is most influential in determining the language that will be required of participants. For this reason, it is important to take into consideration the level of the students, their background in global issues and the lexicon of the agenda items under consideration. A MUN debate on the environment will stimulate the use of a very different lexicon than a discussion over arms control. For this reason, organizers of MUN conferences in EFL settings have tended towards social and environmental topics.

Regardless of the focus that is taken, the moment a topic is chosen the classroom is transformed into a venue for interdisciplinary education. To illustrate this point, one need merely to review the agenda items of past MUN conferences hosted by

Kyoto Nishi High School. Organizers and delegates have tackled agenda items as diverse as family planning, the rights of the girl child, indigenous peoples, and the Palestine question. As students research and debate an issue such as family planning, they are required to draw from and build upon their knowledge of science, health, economics and mathematics. This interdisciplinary study is guided by the EFL instructor as he/she seeks out and selects materials, but it can be facilitated by willing specialists in other subjects. In this way, the mere selection of a topic to debate is an invitation to cross the 'chasm' that is traditionally maintained between disciplines. Moreover, the need to obtain current information on the issue drives students and teachers to seek out resources beyond the confines of the institutional walls. Thus, the choice of topic not only weakens the barriers that exist between academic departments, but also challenges the traditional notion of educational setting.

Once the conference topic has been chosen, the MUN organizers need to settle on the UN body that will be simulated. This decision requires some basic knowledge about the activities and proceedings of the United Nations, but is easily made after consulting an encyclopedia or a local United Nations Information Center. For example, one would expect to find the main discussion of family planning at the UN to be conducted in the Population Commission or the Economic and Social Council. Thus, if the topic of an MUN were family planning, one would have students simulate the proceedings of ECOSOC or the Population Commission. To facilitate research, one should attempt to approximate the activities of the United Nations as closely as possible, so it is important to determinecurrent membership on the committee or commission that one has chosen (Again, a UN Information Center can prove an invaluable resource for this task.). Thus, the decision regarding the agenda for the MUN conference dictates the committee that is simulated. In turn, the actual countries that the students will research and subsequently represent are indicated by the membership of the committee at the time of your conference.

The final step to defining the educational parameters of an MUN simulation is the selection of participants, or delegates, to represent the selected countries. While one can easily conduct an MUN within the traditional confines of a single classroom, the decision over who will be the delegates provides yet another opportunity to challenge the parameters that are imposed on the classroom. Delegates can be taken from an entire institution, or from all students of a certain age group within a given region. As the preparation process often necessitates communication between delegates leading up to the event, an MUN can be most easily conducted with participants coming from a single locale. However, as will be illustrated later in this paper, the rewards of drawing delegates from a greater geographical area are enticing.

## The preparation process

Once the students have chosen their countries and begin their research, they start using their language skills to build an understanding across the physical, epistemological and psychological 'barriers' that exist between countries and between the cultures within those countries. This search takes the students' use of their L2 out of the classroom and places them in direct contact with the Englishes of the world. This claim can be supported by a brief overview of the process involved in preparing for the MUN at Kyoto Nishi High School (KNHS).

When the students are assigned their countries, they are often disappointed initially. A typical comment from the students might be, "Ghana? I wanted to be Australia or England!", followed by "Where's Ghana?". They then go to a map on the wall or consult an almanac and thus begin their journey to cross-cultural understanding. One of the first assignments given to the students is to write a letter to the country embassy in Japan and to their assigned country's permanent mission to the United Nations to request background information on the country and material specifically related to the agenda of the MUN. More often than not, they receive a package of information with an accompanying letter from an employee of the government that the students are representing. In most cases, English is the government employee's second or third language.

In the event that material does not come to the students in a timely manner, the students are encouraged to make a telephone call to the embassy in Japan to follow up on their letter. This real world task demands that the students negotiate with a speaker of an English that is quite different than their own and different from that of their Canadian, Australian or American teachers. The students predictably complain that it is difficult to understand the other speaker's English. Later, the students interview other nationals from their assigned country living in Japan and make subsequent contact with government officials. Through this process, what begins as a complaint over the differences in Englishes evolves into an understanding that such Englishes exist and that communication is successfully conducted in spite of the differences. Furthermore, this contact with speakers of other Englishes prepares the students for the conference where they are called upon to speak with exchange students hailing from countries such as Malaysia, Indonesia, the Netherlands, Korea, and Japan. By the end of the MUN conference, all prejudices regarding a perceived hierarchy of Englishes are not eliminated, but the students have taken a chisel and have started to reshape the indoctrinated foundations upon which their perceptions of the world rest.

In addition to the real world task of writing letters to the embassies and permanent missions and interviewing nationals living in Japan, the students also use their L2 in other settings beyond the classroom. For example, students at KNHS are required to go to the United Nations depository and search for relevant United Nations documents. As the large majority of these documents are in English, the task of finding appropriate information calls upon the students to conduct their search in their L2. The students also use the English newspapers as a regular resource and, recently, they have begun conducting searches for information on the internet. Many of the permanent missions to the United Nations, NGO's and governmental departments provide a large amount of current information on the World Wide Web.

A second area in which the students use their English in a real world context is that of support for the conference. Students at KNHS are required to work on a committee with specific responsibilities in preparing for the conference. One group of students works with a native speaker on developing a program for the event and another group cooperates with another teacher to plan for a post-event celebration. Yet another group is assigned the task of being press representatives and they work to contact the local media. As students work with their teachers to create materials (placards, name tags, etc.) and plan other aspects of the event, they use their English for real purposes. The communication is real and it occurs largely beyond the confines of the forty-five minute class.

An additional area of real communication for real purposes stems from the decision that KNHS has made regarding participation. To date, KNHS has had the luxury of keeping the event open to all high schools interested in participating. This decision has allowed us to promote the use of English for real purposes, to cross the physical space that exists between institutions, and to challenge the stereotypes commonly held regarding the roles of teachers and learners. As students prepare for the event and negotiate with participants from other institutions, they send faxes and e-mail messages to each other in their L2. Because the students use these communications to negotiate with each other over country policies, they become each other's teachers. Moreover, since they are conducting this communication beyond the confines of a single institution, the walls that separate our institutions grow thiner.

Beyond the obvious gains to the learners, the network of participating schools also provides opportunities for cooperative teacher development and allows Japanese teachers of English to work with native speaking colleagues. To prepare for the 1996 Kyoto MUN, teachers from twelve institutions met three times throughout the year to plan and to exchange teaching materials. Beyond the organizational meetings, regular communication between the participating schools was maintained through faxes and phone calls to address any questions that arose and to insure that things were running according to schedule. As three of the participating schools had Japanese nationals as their principal instructors, the ongoing planning and communication afforded native speakers of English and the Japanese nationals an opportunity to work together in planning the educational event. This cooperation not only allowed the MUN facilitaters to work across what are normally perceived 'barriers' of institutional walls, but also made inroads to the improved understanding of differences in teaching style.

### Conclusion

At JALT 96, Kachru repeated his question of 'What are the implications of our notion of a speech community?'. From this we may extrapolate the corollary of 'What are the implications of our notion of an educational setting?'. The use of an MUN in an EFL context addresses this second question by demonstrating that a broader definition ofeducational setting creates opportunities to deconstruct the barriers that are often viewed as impediments to our profession. The planning process for an MUN turns perceived barriers into opportunities for language use for real purposes and also places our students in direct contact with the Englishes of the world. Moreover, the act of preparing for participation in an MUN demonstrates to the students that their linguistic resources can lead them to greater cross-cultural understanding. As used by KNHS, the MUN also helps bridge the gap between English instruction by Japanese nationals and that of native speakers of English. With this in mind, the MUN hosted by KNHS may serve as a possible answer to the concerns brought up at JALT '96.

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# Commonly Asked Global Issues Questions

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### Introduction

Teaching global issues is a growing field within the EFL/ESL world. It is a broad field that encompasses a wide variety of topics including human rights, poverty, the environment, refugees, AIDS, and cross-cultural issues, to name just a few. These are difficult topics. For some people they are difficult to discuss in their own language, let alone a foreign language. There are many problems that teachers encounter when they use global issue content in the classroom. This discussion will address some of those problems.

### How can we make global issues fun without trivializing them?

Issues like hunger, poverty and

oppression are not entertaining and should not be. They are relevant, urgent and very real — but not fun. As language teachers, we have no obligation to entertain, but we must maintain interest and motivation. How?

*Vary the activities*

For example, when working with a potentially boring text, teachers can use quizzes, predictions, brainstorming, skimming, scanning, critical reading, note-taking, summary, jigsaw, matching texts with titles, re-ordering scrambled sentences, and matching sentence halves. It is also helpful to incorporate other kinds of materials such as listening, writing, speaking, role plays, games, videos, interviews with other people, and materials or guest speakers from NGOs. Keeping the students moving, thinking, sharing, drawing, singing or listening to "music with a message" are other ways.

For teachers trying to create materials and activities, it's important to remember that any standard activity used in teaching, such as the games "Snakes & Ladders" and "Tic-Tac-Toe" can be adapted to global issue topics.

*Vary the resources*

Resources don't need to consist solely of a textbook or article. The more varied, the more interesting the topic becomes for the student. Possibilities include questionnaires, comics and cartoons, headlines, photos, quotes, data, artifacts, fiction, poems, case studies, videos, songs, interviews, puzzles, student-generated materials based on research, L1 news, and short talks by the teacher.

*Emphasize problem solving*

Students like puzzles; global issues are huge problems crying for a solution. Reinforce the positive side and emphasize what the students can do as members of society to help solve these problems.

Cooperative learning exercises and student-centered activities involve the students, increasing their interest and motivation. Let the students make the discoveries for themselves. Design task-based projects and hands-on projects. Have students create something. Work towards a goal. Reinforce the positive side and emphasize what the students can do as members of society to help solve these problems.

### How can we make a global issues program learner-centered?

Nunan (1988) recommends that we involve the learner in each stage of the curriculum. In our content-based curriculum, we are especially concerned with planning, implementation and evaluation.

1. Planning. Teachers should first analyze students' needs and determine their goals. Then students and teachers together should decide on selection of themes and resources and methods of final assessment.
2. Implementation. A contract between the teacher and learner is made so that the learner takes responsibility for learning. There should be plenty of learner input and exchange of ideas during this stage.
3. Evaluation. There needs to be learner feedback on the tasks, procedures and resources. This should be incorporated into the later stages of the program and any future program.

Other ways to encourage learner-centered classes are to include cooperative learning, group work, and self discovery, and to devise small research projects, at the end of which students share what they have learned with the class.

Development of both interpersonal and intrapersonal (reflective) intelligence is very important when dealing with global issues in the classroom. Students may already be concerned about these issues, but this process allows them to examine their feelings and attitudes towards each issue. For some students, this is the first time that someone has asked them their opinions, so they need time to reflect on their ideas and views on these subjects.

When having the students choose the topics for the semester in a global issues framework, the teacher generally provides the content, but the students can write the discussion questions themselves, with questions exchanged in class between groups. Also, students can devise projects for their own homework.

### How do we evaluate learner performance and progress?

*Individual learners, for final grades or remedial work*

1. Criteria must be established at the outset and not changed unilaterally. It's important to be as objective as possible, so for grading performance on project presentations, for example, we should prepare a standard form listing relevant criteria such as pronunciation, grammar, fluency, and content, and grade them for each criterion according to a numerical scale, adding up the total score at the end and returning the form to the students so they can find out their strong and weak points. This form should be shown to students at the beginning of the program so they are fully aware of how they will be graded.

2. Weekly quizzes, homework, presentations and final tests can be used for evaluation. We can also evaluate students by monitoring their group-work, checking their projects and research, and keeping a binder or portfolio of all work done by each student. We should try to balance the subjective (e.g. scores for presentation) with the objective (e.g. scores on reading and listening quizzes). Students should be made to take responsibility for their learning, grades and organization, with a goal of "genuine understanding" by means of which the students are able to take what they learn in the classroom and apply it outside the classroom.

3. In accordance with the agreed goals of the program, content is a means towards an end; that end being higher language proficiency. We are therefore not justified in testing acquisition of content knowledge (e.g. global issues), we can only test acquisition of language. However, we must test this in context, and global issues are an appropriate context. We are thus fully justified in using reading or listening texts dealing with issues already covered. We must never evaluate opinions when grading, but we should evaluate how proficiently opinions are expressed. For example, we could have students listen to statements about topics they have already discussed and then write their opinions, which would tell us a) if they understood and b) how well they could communicate their opinions.

*Of the whole program*

We can include measures which show how well the content has been understood, and evaluate students' response to it. But we still must focus on how well our language objectives have been achieved, because for the administration, the students, the parents and our colleagues, this is a language program, not a social studies course.

### How can we exploit authentic global issue resources for EFL (bearing in mind that they are often too difficult for learners)?

*College classes*

1. Using authentic reading

Authentic reading is not a problem per se; the students should be able to understand it with some help. If there is no challenge, there is no progress. Nuttall (1982, p. 146) says we should get the students started and then stand back and watch them struggle, but if it's too difficult they will be frustrated. So, how can we help?

- We can activate schema before reading (brainstorm, question and answer, discussion, etc.).
- We can provide key words and concepts in L1 or in clear L2 context, or provide L2-L1 glossaries.
- We can provide questions that direct readers' attention to the main ideas.
- We can simplify, guide, explain, exemplify and elaborate points for the students.
- We can give the learners plenty of time to do the reading, for example,

as homework which is collected and graded.

2. Using authentic listening

This can be a major problem, because it is quite difficult for them. And playing the tape over and over is not the solution. Ask yourself the question, could they understand it if they read the tapescript? If not, abandon it.

If they could understand the tapescript, the task may be simplified by:

- increasing and lengthening pauses
- providing key words and phrases or an outline
- giving a simple summary first
- pausing and elaborating or reading aloud
- providing the tapescript before they listen

Using other resources, for example data, pictures, cartoons, and surveys, in most cases may pose no problem.

*High school classes*

The goal of high school English should be to raise proficiency to the point at which they can understand unsimplified text and speech. Most high school third year students read materials which are almost authentic (with a lot of help). Below third year, authentic materials other than those designed for children are seldom accessible because of the vocabulary and grammar, and because of subject matter and cultural limitations. Artifacts, however, are accessible; so are chants, diagrams, maps and photos.

Sources such as *The Daily Yomiuri* environment pages can be used by high school students for research activities on issues such as endangered species in Japan, but students should be provided beforehand with a glossary, either English to English, or English to Japanese, so all their time isn't consumed by looking up words in the dictionary.

Materials available from Educators for Social Responsibility and Social Studies School Services are applicable and useful for both college level and high school. Materials aimed at native speaker middle school students are often appropriate for lower level EFL students. Some activities in books designed for native speaker high school students work quite well with Japanese college students, and can be adapted for use at various levels.

### Conclusion

This discussion has attempted to answer four key questions about the use of global issues content in EFL classes. For answers to other questions, please refer to Cates (1992).

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# Geography in the Global Issues Classroom

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### Introduction

Like many teachers who teach global issues, I am concerned about the students' lack of geographical knowledge. On numerous occasions the students' ideas about the locations of certain countries has astounded me. I'm from California. I used to wonder how the students got the notion that California is a country, as well as why they didn't realize that both San Francisco and Los Angeles were actually in California. These weren't the only ideas that astonished me. Others include that Africa is one country, that Paris is in England, and that the Great Wall of China is in Thailand. The list of incredulous ideas about geography goes on and on. I'm sure each teacher has their own stories to tell, too.

## Why is geography important?

### *Holistic view of the world*

The holistic view of the world presents the earth as being one entity, a whole, as opposed to all countries being separate from each other. Each of its parts influences every other part; they are all interconnected. With this view, our individual countries are not as important as the whole itself. Yet being part of that whole requires knowing about the other countries that make up the earth, their locations, basic facts, and in what ways each country affects another.

### *We live in the global age*

Through information technology like computers, the Internet, and the mass media, our lives are becoming increasingly intertwined and linked. The "global village" is being built at this very moment. Since we are being exposed to other countries and cultures on a daily basis, some basic knowledge of them is essential.

### *On a personal level*

Not only are we connected to the world through technology, but we are involved in it with the clothes we wear, the food we eat, the cars we drive, and the appliances we use. Everyday we come in contact with the world, whether we realize it or not. Realizing and comprehending this notion is another essential part of teaching global issues and geographical skills.

### *Insularity and Japan*

Many countries in this world are insular, concerned only with their own country. Students in the U.S. are infamous for their poor geography skills. Students in Japan are also quite uninformed about the world. The commonly held view in Japan is that the country and its people are trying to internationalize, but how can this happen when students can't tell you where Thailand is? Or Mexico? Or Germany? Part of internationalizing is knowing where countries are in the world. This leads to the final reason.

### *Geography is fundamental in teaching global issues*

According to Cates (1990, p. 4), one of the goals of global education is knowledge about problems in the world. If I want to teach about human rights, or poverty, it's essential that the students have some knowledge about the country or countries in question. It's difficult to jump into the problem of human rights abuses in a certain country if the students don't have any information about that country, such as where it is located, the climate, land, culture, and history — these are basic facts that are an integral part of geography that will also aid in comprehension of the issue. Also, if there is some knowledge, some relevance or connection to their lives, their interest and understanding of the issue in question increases.

Some of the following activities I designed myself; others are games that are available through educational materials companies for which I've created follow-up activities. Some of these games I've had to adapt to language teaching, to the class size, and of course to the class level.

When playing games it's also important to remember that this is a good opportunity for students to use the target language in a real situation, so be sure to prepare them with the necessary vocabulary for playing games.

For example : Whose turn is it?
It's your turn.
Next.
Pick a card.

## Geography Activities

### *Geography Game*

Materials needed: A map including a list of capital cities and a handout. The handout consists of questions such as :

Is it above/below the equator?
Is it in the north? South? East? West?
Is it a big country? Medium-sized? Small?
Does it border ________?
Is the capital ________?
Is it ____________?

Students work in pairs. One student chooses a country, the other student must ask the above "yes" or "no" questions about the location to find out what country it is.

*World 7*

Materials needed: *World 7* card game

Students get into groups of 4-5. Each student gets a map and 7 cards. The first player to get seven countries (cards) that are bordering wins.

Follow-up:

1. Have the students choose one country out of the countries on their cards. They went on vacation there. Each member in the group will ask one question about that vacation. Remind them to use their imagination!!! Continue so all members have answered questions.
2. Do an oral report on one of the countries on the cards.
3. Choose one global issue (e.g. poverty). Have each student bring information on poverty for one country. Compare and discuss the causes and effects of poverty in those countries.

*Postcard Game*

Materials needed: postcards or photos from around the world

Optional: map

Place numbered postcards from various countries around the classroom.

Variations:

1. The students, in pairs or individually, go around the room and guess what country that postcard is from. Go over the answers as a class.
2. Give the students a blanked out map of the countries on the postcards. Have them fill it in either while they're guessing, or after you've gone over the answers.
3. Give the students a map with the countries on the postcards highlighted. Have the students match the postcard with the country.
4. Discuss the images on the postcards. What can you tell about the country from the photo?

*World Geography & Famous Places*

Materials needed: Trivia games *World Geography, Famous Places*

The students take turns asking and answering questions for each card either as a team, or individually. The person or team with the most right answers wins.

Follow-up:

1. After the student has answered the question, have them locate the place and mark it on a map.
2. Have the students make a large map for the classroom, drawing in the different places on their cards. Or each team can make a map for one continent, including famous places, cities, mountains, etc.

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## Note

Some of the educational games noted in the text are available through Social Studies School Service, 10200 Jefferson Boulevard, Room 13, PO Box 802, Culver City, CA 90232-0802 USA.

# Gender Issues In Language Education

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Gender issues in language education has received relatively little attention, particularly in Japan, given the importance of the topic and the pervasive ways it influences language, language acquisition, culture, and teaching. Increasingly, however, educators are using gender issues as topics for discussions or as thematic units within content-based courses — courses that encourage students to use the target language for acquiring knowledge (Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 1989). The topics a gender issues course can include — such as the family, gender roles, and sexuality — have an obvious appeal for educators. Such topics can generate high interest, are relatively easy to relate to student experience, and have volumes of accessible authentic materials; all of which allows language learning to be contextualized in a realistic and pragmatic form. Each of the three papers presented in the session, *Gender issues in language education*,[1] critically addressed specific gender based issues and topics of interest to language educators in Japan.

## Why Gender in the ESL Classroom: A Modest Proposal

In this paper, Yamashiro discusses the rationale for producing a monograph on gender issues (Casanave & Yamashiro, 1996), its relevance for language education, and its motivating effect for the writers involved in the project. One reason for creating this volume was the clear need for more publications specifically on gender issues within the EFL context.

Considering how often gender issues serve as topics for thematic units in content-based English courses or to perk up an English conversation class, it was not difficult to gather educators to write on this theme. Moreover, sexism in language, constraining gender roles, and inequality are issues that educators must face both in and out of the classroom. What and how to teach requires choices. These choices directly affect our students in terms of their cultural knowledge, attitudes, and awareness of what is appropriate to say and do within an English speaking environment. In short, there is a clear need for all educators to raise their awareness of these issues and for researchers to develop the themes Sunderland (1994) outlines in her excellent volume, *Exploring Gender: Questions and Implications for English Language Education*. To place the matter clearly within the Japanese context, Fujimura-Fanselow and Kameda (1995) have produced a fine collection of original and translated essays.

Finally, in line with the rationales for global-education, meaningful content that was seen as relevant at either the personal and/or professional level motivated writers to produce multiple drafts and actively participate during each of the peer review sessions. In terms of professional development, the writing process helped the contributors to further clarify both the complexity of the issues and the diversity of opinions held.

## Teaching About Social Inequality And Gender In The Language Classroom

In the second paper, Hardy explores ways teaching about social inequality and gender in English classrooms in Japan crosses boundaries, for students and teachers, by helping to both reflect on their assumptions and responses to the topic.

He starts by reviewing his personal, professional, and social motives for teaching a class on gender inequality. The speaker's personal experience of social inequality as a member of a relatively marginalized sexual orientation awakened him to the pervasiveness and power of the inequalities such groups face. Professionally, he studied anthropology and sees the discipline as committed to the study of social inequality and gender issues (Wolf, 1982; Gailey, 1987). Also, he sees anthropology as a discipline in which the Other (formerly exotic and primitive cultures) is used to inform an understanding and critique of one's own culture (Diamond, 1974). The writer's social motives come from his sense that teachers have an obligation to teach critical thinking skills and social awareness, in addition to the manifest content of their classes (Postman & Weingartner, 1969; Dale, 1995). These motives interact with and compliment the explicit goals of content based English classes: language acquisition and increasing social awareness.

Hardy then describes the teaching of a class in gender inequality. He starts by dividing the class into small groups and asking students how societies divide themselves into groups. After a short discussion period, he has each group write its answers on the blackboard. He then reduces the students' list to the basic sociological categories of sex, class, age, ethnicity, and race. He asks students, "What is divided unequally among these groups?" Or, "What does society give the lucky groups and keep from the unlucky groups?" Again, students discuss the question in groups and write their collective answers on the board. And again, Hardy reduces these to the classic sociological rewards of wealth, power, and prestige. Students read and discuss brief passages describing gender inequality in the United States. They then form groups and each group is assigned to watch and analyze one film with strong gender content, such as *Thelma and Louise* or *Steel Magnolias*. The groups watch the films and fill out a worksheet asking them to summarize the film and find instances in it of gender based preferences in access to wealth, power and prestige. The instructor collects these worksheets in the following class and immediately has students interview experts on other films — an extended information gap activity.

With a fair grasp of the forms and operations of gender inequality in another culture, in this case the anthropological Other being the United States, students turn their attention to Japan. In groups they generate short reading and discussion passages on selected aspects of gender inequality in Japan and share these with other groups. They then watch and analyze films as they did for the United States. The final class project is short individual papers.

Student comments on end-of-term evaluations indicate a successful class in terms of language acquisition including vocabulary, "I learned to make ourselves the words of reports in English" (Yukiko); listening comprehension, "I think you will become understand native English" (Kayoko); and speaking skills " I learned to communication by speaking in English with the other people" (Toru). The course helped develop social and group skills, "To cooperate with group member is interesting" (Akiko), "I noticed hard and pleasure of the group by the project. I thought the group was hard but it was very enjoy and became study for me very much" (Miho).

Students also commented on their intellectual development. They seemed to have learned to recognize gender inequalities in their own lives and the lives of those around them. "There are many discrimination to women around me. I have never thought about why women cook? Why women must clean? . . . I think it is bad to say you can't do it because you are a girl or you must do that because you are a boy. All men and women is same man. So we must not make a discrimination men and women, I thought" (Akiko).

A further success of the class has been raising the awareness of the instructor concerning his cultural assumptions about gender relations and the functions of inequality in maintaining social stability.

### Forging Alliances: Grassroots Feminists Language Education in the Tokyo Area

In the third paper, McMahill describes a movement towards grassroots feminist language education which has been invented by independent groups of women in response to a growing awareness of the limitations of existing educational institutions in nurturing cross-cultural feminist consciousness.

In grassroots feminist language education, the participants are feminists in search of a second language or cross-cultural contacts in order to engage more fully in activist or feminist work, and the goal of the classes extends beyond mere language acquisition to the empowerment of participants. It is a means whereby "... participants study themselves, name the problems that need to be researched, collect data, and analyze them, thus generating their own knowledge, and ultimately produce plans for action based on the results of the research" (Auerbach, 1994, pp. 694-695).

In her paper, McMahill uses her personal experience with feminism and feminist language classes in Japan, data gathered with these sources through questionnaires and interviews to identify and describe four modes of grassroots feminist English/Japanese language education alive in the Tokyo area — namely peer tutoring, peer language exchange with a facilitator, small language study groups, and feminist language schools. Motivations for choosing these over other options, such as commercial language schools, are explored. The paper concludes that grassroots feminist language education has emerged as a means of resistance, not only against the content, but also against the pedagogical practice of Japan's dominant educational paradigms. This is because the instructor works within structures controlled by the learners, and implicit in this is at least a partial relinquishment of the educator's role as an expert or depositor of knowledge.

The author observes that these feminist language education experiments provide the opportunity to break down and redefine traditional power relations between teachers and students, even when an instructor is officially contracted to teach a small group. One reason for this is that feminist pedagogy, with its roots in leaderless consciousness-raising groups and collectives, has emphasized egalitarian relationships between students and teachers and posits equal importance between experience and feeling as legitimate sources of knowledge (Weiler, 1994).

### Conclusion

Taken as a whole, the three papers clearly stress the need for language teachers and students to recognise the extent to which gender-related issues pervade our language and lives in ways that are as political as they are pedagogical. Indeed, a more basic need is recognize that the two cannot be separated. We urge educators to construct an atmosphere in their schools and classrooms that will help them and their students develop this awareness.

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## Note

[1] Earlier versions of these papers have appeared in Casanave C.P. & Yamashiro, A.D. (Eds.) 1996). We thank the editors of that volume for their help in working through the ideas, materials, and organization of these papers. Of course, any errors of omission or commission that remain are the responsibility of the writers.

# Culture, Variation And English Language Education*

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## Introduction

This paper looks at variation in English and its educational implications from the perspective of critical linguistics (Fowler, Hodge, Kress and Trew (1979), Fowler (1988), Fairclough (1992), Hodge and Kress (1993 [1979]), among others.). Sociolinguistic research has shown that structural variations observed in English around the world have resulted from a number of well-defined processes (see, e.g., B. Kachru 1983; Lowenberg 1984, 1992a; Platt and Webber 1980; Tay 1993; Teh 1986). The same is true of discourse structures and strategies across languages and cultures. There is, however, a great deal of resistance to according equal status to all varieties of English, and the questions of 'standards' and 'norms' are still being debated widely and passionately (see, e.g., the debate in B. Kachru 1988, 1991, Lowenberg 1993, Quirk 1985, 1988, Tickoo 1991). As a result, the underlying assumptions of English language education at present differ a great deal across the world. The ESL/EFL profession is largely driven by principles and practices developed in response to the concerns of the perceived needs of the international students enrolled in educational institutions in the UK and USA and their teachers. Consequently, the concerns of English education in the Outer and Expanding Circle play at best a marginal role in building theories or developing methodologies.[1] This leaves the professionals in these Circles in a difficult situation whether the perceived need is for appropriate theories, methodologies, or practices. The aim of this paper is to argue for shifting the perspective of the profession. I hope to accomplish this goal by focusing on a characterization of (a) the competence in English required for successful cross-cultural interaction, and (b) programs with principles and practices that respond to the world-wide concerns of English education by providing opportunities to facilitate the acquisition of such competence. Data for the discussion are drawn from structures and discourses in several varieties of world Englishes. I will first discuss variation in English and what motivates it, and subsequently characterize the competence needed for cross-cultural communication.

Finally, I will suggest how programs could fulfill the perceived needs of world majority learners of English.

## Variation in English

There are two ways of looking at variation: one is to label all variation substandard, which is articulated in the following quote:

> I believe that the fashion of undermining belief in standard English has wrought educational damage in the ENL [Inner Circle] countries, though I am ready to concede that there may well have been compensating educational gains in the wider tolerance for an enjoyment of the extraordinary variety of English around us in any of these countries. But then just such an airy contempt for standards started to be exported to EFL and ESL countries, and for this I can find no such mitigating compensation. *The relatively narrow range of purposes for which the non-native needs to use English (even in ESL countries) is arguably well-catered for by a single monochrome standard form that looks as good on paper as it sounds in speech.* There are only the most dubious advantages in exposing the learner to a great variety of usage, no part of which he will have time to master properly, little of which he will be called upon to exercise, all of which is embedded in a controversial sociolinguistic matrix he cannot be expected to understand. [Quirk 1985:6 (emphasis added)]

However, sociolinguistic research on varieties of English has shown that the use of world Englishes has acquired a range and depth in different speech communities which makes it clear that the italicized part of the quote above is obsolete.[2] In fact, it is no longer justified to look at these varieties from the perspective of acquisitional deficiency and label them substandard. Concepts of 'interlanguage' and 'fossilization' are irrelevant in characterizing the institutionalized varieties of the Outer Circle, and are fast becoming so in accounting for the acrolectal forms of performance varieties of the Expanding Circle.[2] The observations of Quirk (1985) about the 'monochrome' standard go against the sociolinguistic realities in the Outer as well as Expanding Circle contexts.

Two major factors are responsible for the observable differences among the varieties of English: language contact and the communicative needs of the speech communities that use them. At the risk of overgeneralizing, it is reasonable to say that phonological and lexicogrammatical variation in the diaspora varieties largely results from language contact, whereas variation in discourse strategies and literary styles is additionally motivated by the relevant speech communities attempting to express their own meanings in English. This is as true of the Outer and Expanding Circle varieties as it is of the Inner Circle Englishes. As a consequence, communicative competence in English can no longer be equated with "native speaker" competence of any one set of users of English for verbal interaction (Nelson 1992).

## Communicative Competence in Varieties of English

For successful communication in world Englishes across languages and cultures, we need to pay attention to some major factors. The first relevant factor is that not all users of world Englishes in the three circles need to communicate across regional and national boundaries. Those who are required to participate in intercultural communication, for whatever purposes, need to be sensitized to variation that exists in the language so that issues of intelligibility do not assume proportions such that successful interaction becomes impossible. Intelligibility includes not only the ability to decode the incoming message in terms of sounds, words and grammatical structures, but also in terms of comprehending the utterance(s) and interpreting the intentions of the encoder of the message. The distinction that Smith (1992) makes in terms of intelligibility, comprehensibility and interpretability is crucial here. Intelligibility refers to utterance recognition, comprehensibility to recognition of utterance meaning, and interpretability to the recognition of the illocutionary force and implicature of utterances. Obviously, for the users of different varieties to be intelligible in this sense requires a great deal of awareness of linguistic as well as cultural context. The linguistic factors that are involved are phonological, lexicogrammatical, and discoursal. I would like to discuss variation in each of these areas in world Englishes in some detail to see what is involved in acquiring competence in more than one variety.

### A. Phonology

It has been claimed that more than segmental sounds, the rhythmic patterns in speech are responsible for ensuring interpretability. This means that unfamiliar stress and intonational patterns can lead to breakdown in communication (see Gumperz 1982a, 1982b for examples). It is also a well-known fact that stress assignment in words differs across varieties. For instance, word stress in the American and British varieties differs significantly. In the Outer and Expanding Circle varieties, stress placement is different from the Inner Circle varieties in one crucial respect. Most Outer and Expanding Circle varieties have a syllable-timed rather than a stress-timed rhythm (Bamgbose 1992, B. Kachru 1983). As such, stress assignment follows the values attached to the "mores" (weight of syllables in terms of duration) in these varieties. Stress placement in IE and NE follows from the principle of syllable weight. In success, both syllables are short; therefore, the default rule of placing the stress on the first syllable applies. In recognize, however, since the vowels in re- and -cog- are short and not as weighty as the diphthong in -nize, the primary stress goes with the heavier syllable. Rhythm in these varieties is based on the mores of the syllables; the long syllables are twice as long as the short, but the quality of the vowel in long as well as short syllables remains the same. In the case of a word with several long syllables, all the syllables are pronounced long irrespective of their stressed or unstressed character. In the Inner Circle Englishes, the stressed syllable has a longer duration as compared to the unstressed syllable; in fact, the rhythmic pattern of these Englishes is such that in a multisyllabic word, the duration of the several unstressed syllables is roughly equivalent to the one stressed syllable. Consequently, vowel quality has a strong correlation with stress. To the Inner Circle speakers of English, the other varieties sound as though they have a staccato rhythm. In situations of reasonable long term contact, however, users of different varieties seem to adjust well to each other's rhythm and manage to communicate successfully. This is obvious when one looks at the educational, financial, media-related, and political and diplomatic institutions around the world.

### B. Lexicogrammar

#### *a. Lexicon*

Most varieties have their own characteristic lexicon, developed in response to local contexts. Well-known examples of this phenomenon are innovations that take place in a variety as a response to local needs, items that are borrowed from the substratum languages, and hybrid items that are formed by juxtaposing such a borrowed item and an English item. Some examples from both Inner and Outer Circle varieties are as follows:

> American English innovations: affiliate, caboose, collide, downtown, endorse, hammock, hominy, jeopardize, moccasin, opposum, predicate, itemize, boomer, boomtown, bouncer, roller-coaster, fill the bill, fizzle out, make tracks, peter out, keep tab, etc.
>
> African English innovations: be on seat (be in one's place of work), been-to (one who has been to England), be coupled (find a partner at dance), me-and-my-darling (love seat), bush meat (game), tight friend (close friend), small room (toilet) (Bokamba 1992); long legs (influence) (B. Kachru 1995)
>
> Indian English innovations: gherao (sit-in), interdine (sharing a meal with people of different caste or religion), co-brother-in-law (wife's sister's husband), nine-stranded

thread (sacred thread worn by a married caste Hindu), homely (home-loving)

Lexical innovations are easily observable and there have been several compilations of variety-specific items (see, e.g., Yule and Burnell 1886, Grote 1992). Grammatical and discoursal variations, on the other hand, are much more complex and require serious research effort. I will discuss a few areas of grammatical variation first.

### *b. Grammar*

Grammatical features that vary noticeably in performance are the following: the article system, use of infinitives and gerunds, and systems of tenses and question answering. I will discuss the article system in some detail here.

The conventions of use of articles with nouns can be stated as follows:

a. a(n): indefinite non-specific, or indefinite specific, or generic (with count nouns in the singular)

the: definite specific (with count and mass nouns), or non-specific generic (with count nouns only)

some: indefinite non-specific, or indefinite specific (with count nouns in the plural, with mass nouns)

Ø: generic (with count nouns in the plural, with mass nouns)

The description makes it clear that there is considerable overlap among the forms of articles and the meanings they signal. Of course, the generic reference is not signaled by the articles exclusively; the tense-aspect of the utterance is relevant, too (cf. A tiger roars vs. A tiger is roaring or A tiger roared).

There are three factors that complicate the learning of the above system of articles in areas where English is not acquired as the first language. First, there is no one-to-one correlation between the forms (i.e. a, the, some) and the meanings they signal. Second, there are inconsistencies in the use of articles even with the count nouns, as has been pointed out by McArthur (1994) and Ilson (1995). For instance, there is variation in the use of articles in American and British English which manifests itself in the dropping of a(n) or replacing an with a:

b. Dropping a(n):

*The Sunday Times*, 13 June 93: 'He was decent, caring man who was disgusted by the vandalism.' (McArthur 1994: 2)

*International Herald Tribune*, 15 April 93, quoting an American: 'It is virulent strand of racism.' (McArthur 1994: 2)

*The Observer*: 'The point is that it is platform for good journalism with differing views.' (Ilson 1995: 43)

In addition, the norms of article use in American English seem to be undergoing a change (Stewart and Fawcett 1994):

c. an > a in American English (Stewart and Fawcett 1994: 20-22)

| | |
|---|---|
| President Carter | a election process (1976) |
| President Bush | a internal (1990) |
| Dick Cavett | a emergency (1986) |
| Phil Donahue | a upper class (1986) |
| Robert Ballard (scientist) | a unqualified success (1985) |
| Jana Williams (educator) | a interesting game (1982) |

Third, in many languages of the world, only the indefinite noun is marked either with a determiner or with an affix, the definite is unmarked, and the generic is a function of the definite. This is true of all the major languages of South Asia, of Persian, and of several other languages of the world. In view of these facts, it is not surprising that the Outer and Expanding Circle Englishes do not use articles in the way that the existing English grammars prescribe.

The picture is further complicated by the fact that depending upon speaker intentions, the choice of articles may vary in what appears to the learners the same context. For example, note the following responses by B to A:

d. A: I am thirsty.
B: There is (some) orange juice in the fridge.

Except for the implication of quantity in the use of some as opposed to the zero article, there is no difference in referential meaning that is signaled by this choice.

A related complication is that nouns, according to grammars, are said to be inherently either count or mass and the use of articles is determined by these properties of the nouns. In fact, grammatical descriptions differ from each other considerably. According to Allan (1980), in terms of countability, there are eight different classes of nouns in English in view of (a) their potential for combining with the following types of determiners: the zero determiner; unit determiners such as a(n), one; fuzzy quantifiers such as several, about fifty; the determiner all in the sense of 'completely'; and (b) their potentiality for being marked as plural, either inflectionally or in terms of agreement features. According to Huddleston (1984: 245), there are six classes of nouns exemplified by equipment (fully mass), knowledge (almost mass, but occur with a, e.g., a good knowledge of Latin), clothes (occur with fuzzy quantifiers such as many, few, hence are more count-like), cattle (occur with fuzzy quantifiers and large round numbers), people (collective noun, have plural forms, e.g., peoples, but are not fully countable in that these nouns do not occur in a singular form), and dog (fully count). Inner Circle varieties seem to treat nouns differently in terms of countability:

e. Countability of nouns: lettuce, attendance, entertainment Non-count in AE, Count in BE; knowledge, evidence used as countable by reputed linguists in AE (Lowenberg 1992b)

It is clear that the English system of countability is complex. Moreover, the conventions of marking countability differs across languages. In English, mass nouns (equipment, sugar) are inherently singular, but in Sinhalese and Ki-Swahili, they are treated as plural. In many languages, there is no distinction between a shirt and (a pair of) trousers. Thus, there does not seem to be any conceptual basis for treating several categories of nouns in any particular way, grammatically speaking.

In African, Caribbean, East, South and South-East Asian varieties of English, the complex system of marking count/mass distinction in English is simplified. Perceptually countable items such as furniture, equipment, luggage are regularly used with a plural marker to denote more than one piece (see the papers in B. Kachru 1992b). Since neither the determiner nor the countability system is clearly described in any language learning/teaching text, there is a great deal of variation in the Outer and Expanding Circle varieties in the usage of determiners and the categorization of nouns. In some varieties, such as Singaporean and Thai, inflectional marking of plural is not always consistent, partly as a result of phonological processes such as final consonant cluster simplification. According to the several generations of American MATESL candidates that I have had the privilege to interact with, these do not cause problems of intelligibility, even though they identify speakers as non-native users of English.

The assertion that grammatical differences are responsible for lack of intelligibility in native-non-native interaction is only partially true. I would like to contrast some differences between Inner Circle Englishes with those between the Inner and the Outer Circle Englishes. Consider the examples given in e and f :

f. Reversal of meaning in restrictive vs. non-restrictive relative clauses (Newbrook 1992):

AusE: The students who had finished left the hall. [all the relevant students]

The students, who had finished, left the hall. [only a subset]

BE: The students who had finished left the hall. [a subset of students]

The students, who had finished, left the hall. [all the relevant students]

g. Question-Answering system (in IE, AFE (Bokamba 1992), PhE (Gumperz 1982a))

A: Isn't your car running?
B: Yes (implication: It isn't running)
No (implication: It is)

One wonders why g is likely to cause more problems in intelligibility than f? The differences in both are equally salient from the point of view of meaning. Attitudes toward varieties may be one explanation, but that requires separate treatment. I would like to move on to discourse now.

## C. Discourse

### *Speech Acts*

Communicative competence across varieties of English depends a great deal on familiarity with cultural conventions of language use. English is used in a particular variety to express the sociocultural meanings that the users of that variety have and that are unfamiliar to those who are outside the context. One example may make this clear. There is a speech genre *saugandh khana* or *qasam khana* which is roughly translatable as 'to swear'. It is, however, different from the English item 'swear' in that it only shares the following meanings with it: 'to assert, promise, agree to, or confirm on oath.' The other, more negative meanings of the English item are not shared by the Hindi item. Another difference is that one can 'swear' by anything dear or valuable to one, e.g., one's own self, one's kin, and, of course, the sacred text, **Bhagvadgita** or God. It has the illocutionary force of strong assertion, persuasion, challenge, promise, or entreaty, depending upon the context. Two examples of how it is used in Indian English with the illocutionary forces of strong assertion and persuasion, respectively, are given in a and b below:

a. 'Hé, brother, what is it all about?'

'Nothing. I think it's about the quarrel between Ramaji and Subbaji. You know about the Cornerstone?'

'But, on my mother's soul, I thought they were going to the court?'[Rao. 1978: 17]

The context is that one villager is trying to find out from another villager what the bailiff's drum meant. The first villager 'swears' in order to convince the second that he had a certain piece of information which he really believed to be true.

In the second example (b), an older sister is scolding a younger brother for arguing with her:

b. '...And Ramu,' she cried desperately, 'I have enough of quarreling all the time. In the name of our holy mother can't you leave me alone!' [Raja Rao: 88]

The expression holy mother in the above example does not refer to any deity; it refers to the female (biological) parent of the siblings. The sister is trying to persuade her brother to drop the topic they have been arguing about.

The examples make it clear that the cultural meaning of *saugandh khana* is very different from 'to swear' in the native English-speaking context. The two instances of swearing are interpretable only in the context of a society or culture that shares the specific meanings with South Asian society and culture. Notice that it is not the meaning of assertion or persuasion that is unfamiliar to other variety users; it is the linguistic device of using 'swear' to accomplish assertion or persuasion that is unfamiliar. Some further patterns of familiar speech genres in IE are given below.

c. Pattern of greeting and response (If B is older in age or relationship)

A: Greeting

B: Blessing

d. Pattern of compliment-response

A: Compliment

B: Not deserving the compliment OR lowering of head in humility OR silence

e. Pattern of invitation-response (Also in Chinese, Mao 1992)

A: Invitation

B: Initial unwillingness to cause trouble

A: Insistence

B: Acceptance

f. Patterns of expressing gratitude (Y. Kachru 1995c)

Informal situations: Blessing (if expressing gratitude to a younger person), appreciation of inherent qualities or effort or help rendered (if expresing gratitude to an equal), expression of one's helplessness and grateful acceptance of favor (if expressing gratitude to a superior in status)

Formal situations: Thanks.

To ensure success in intercultural communication, it is necessary to be aware of how conventions differ across varieties.

*Writing Conventions*

Non-native writing has been a source of great concern to educators in the Inner Circle institutions. The problem is that most Outer Circle and Expanding Circle writers would agree with Chinua Achebe—substituting their own region for "African"—when he says:

a. "Most African writers write out of an African experience and of commitment to an African destiny. For them that destiny does not include a future European identity for which the present is but an apprenticeship." (Jussawalla and Dasenbrock 1992: 34)

Writing from one's own experience means that conventions of writing differ across varieties. Some of the conventions of writing personal and business letters are listed in b:

b. Formulas for opening and closing letters: compare the following from Indian English with the Inner Circle norms:

B. Kachru (1992a: 313): "If the writer is senior in age, the use of blessings seems excessive to a person who is not part of the culture . . . " Consider, for example, the following: "I always send my love and prayers to you all everyday: unseen unheard. May Lord Shiva always protect you all and look after you."

Bamgbose (1992: 159) claims that in the context of Nigerian English, "one has little choice but to mix formulas for opening and closing letters (i.e., open with Dear Sir [instead of Dear surname or first name] and close with Yours sincerely), "since it will be considered impolite to address an older person by his surname, and positively disrespectful, if not impudent, to use his first name."

One example of a culturally different personal letter is in c :

c. Japanese letter: written by a Japanese professor of English to a colleague at an American university whom the writer had met a few weeks ago. The writer and the addressee had gone on a tour of a shrine and had shared a meal along with several other colleagues.

Dear Professor X,

It passed around three months that a couple of you enjoyed sharing happy talks and spending a lot of beautiful times to chat and eat out dinner at typical Japanese cuisine restaurant with moss garden. I was very glad that I could have 90-minute long academic lecture from DR. X on [date]. I'm afraid that you would exhaust after your return to the US with very heavy and busy schedule in Japan. I'm sure that your daughter finished with joy and in safe. Please let us show me a beautiful wedding picture of your daughter on [date] when I will call at your house some time.

I'm very sorry that I could not contact with you this summer. I visited [city] and stayed at an American family as a tour escort for [No.] Japanese College Students' Home-Stay Program from [dates]. I dropped into Hawaii for three days on my way to return to my home. I'm very exciting to attend the World Englishes Congress in UH at Manoa and meet you again next December. I wish that I could have a good communication with you when I'll visit the US.

Please let me know and mail your itinerary of next year if the intensive or term linguistics will be held by the Department of Linguistics at [university]. I hope to see you again in Finland on the 11th World Congress of Applied Linguistics from 4-9 August in 1996 if you visit there.
Yours sincerely,

The Japanese letter reflects the dominant cultural value of emphasis on what Jenkins and Hinds (1987) term 'space;' i.e., the relationship between the reader and the writer. The opening situates the letter in a shared experience, which is followed by an expression of concern for the addressee and a personal event of considereable interest to the addressee. The transition is provided by the first sentence of the second paragraph, where the writer informs the addressee of the writer's activities as they relate to the addressee's location. The request follows in the opening sentence of the third paragraph. The second sentence of the third paragraph, which is the last sentence of the letter, attempts to establish the desired harmonious relationship by expressing the hope of meeting the addressee again. For some one not familiar with the Japanese conventions of letter writing, it is difficult to judge if the request is serious, or just a casual indication of interest in an ongoing academic program that the two interlocutors had talked about briefly.

One of the conventions of Outer Circle English that has been discussed much in Inner Circle academic institutions is that of ornateness and deferential or 'high' style in prose. That such a style is important for cultural identity is supported by the following fact: An Inner Circle speaker of English, Chuck, who became Acyutananda Svami, expresses his gratitude to his 'guru' or 'spiritual teacher' in the following words (Acyutananda Svami: Songs of the Vaisnavā Acaryas. Los Angeles, 1974: xviii):

d. I offer my prostrate obeisance first unto all the devotees that have surrendered unto his divine lotus feet and next unto the devotees who will in the future take shelter of his lotus feet, and I then offer my humble obeisances unto his lotusfeet again and again. May he bless this first translation attempt so that it may be accepted by the Lord Sri Krshna, and may he engage me in the service of the six Gosvamis of Vrndavana, Lord Caitanya, and Radharani.

That there are adverse reactions to such styles in the Inner Circle is well-documented. In fact, there are strong reactions against regional varieties of Inner Circle Englishes, too, as illustrated by the events that followed the award of the Booker Prize to the Scottish writer James Kelman.

The author, reacting to the response to his novel *How Late it Was, How Late*, which was called a "disgrace" by one of the judges, Rabbi Julia Neuberger, and "literary vandalism" by Simon Jenkins, had this to say in *The Times of London:*

> "A fine line can exist between eliticism and racism," he said. "On matters concerning language and culture, the distinction can sometimes cease to exist altogether."
>
> Recalling times when Glaswegian accents were banned from the radio or when his two daughters were 'reprimanded' in school for using the Scotts 'aye' instead of the English 'yes,' he said it was wrong to call the language of his work 'vernacular' or 'dialect.'
>
> "To me, those words are just another way of inferiorizing the language by indicating that there's a standard," he said. "The dictionary would use the term 'debased.' But it's the language! The living language and it comes out of many different sources, including Scotland before the English arrived." (Reported in *The New York Times* , November 29, 1994: B1-2)

In academic writing there are also several myths. One is that indirection is bad, and all good writing must be direct and linear, and in the absence of the capability to write in this preferred manner, no scientific or technological progress is possible. In view of the fact that almost all styles of writing—German, Russian, African, Asian—have been shown to be indirect or circular or digressive, one wonders how any scientific progress was possible in the centuries preceding the latter half of the 20th century? After all, the so-called direct, linear style of writing is, historically speaking, a recent phenomenon in the literate English-speaking world (see Y. Kachru 1995a and 1995b for a detailed discussion of this point).

## Challenges for English Education

I will address this question from the perspective of a teacher educator involved in the higher education of ESL and EFL teachers. As important as courses in teaching methodologies, psychology of learning and second language acquisition are for prospective teachers of English, no less important are courses that provide a comprehensive view of world Englishes and their uses and users. This is especially important since there is little awareness of the languages of wider communication, such as English, in the SLA literature. The perspective on language variation and its implications for language learning and teaching presented in this paper is almost totally absent in the SLA literature. There is resistance to acknowledging the social reality of varieties and their relevance for human interaction across languages and cultures. This attitude is reflected in the quote from Quirk (1985) in 5 above. It is also reflected in the lack of courses in the area of language variation in general and world Englishes in particular in the MATESL programs of the Inner Circle institutions of higher education (Vavrus 1991). There seems to be little understanding of the fact that awareness of variation does not preclude teachers helping learners acquire whichever variety the educational system of a particular region or nation prefers. On the contrary, it leads both teachers and students to assess realistically what motivates such preferences, and prepares them to respond professionally to performance requirements in a responsible manner.

The critical linguistic perspective advocates student empowerment by making it possible for them to become aware of language variation, attitudes toward variation, and societal consequences of these attitudes (Rampton 1992). A wealth of material is now available on varieties of English and some attempts have been made to suggest ways of making ESL professionals aware of these resources (e.g., B. Kachru 1995, Tawake 1993). There is no excuse for not using these resources to raise the consciousness of all ESL professionals. Educational practices are cultural practices. Language education does not and should not mean perpetuation of outdated prejudices and attitudes that result from them.

As a result of the explosion of technology and developments in international business and commerce, the dream of the world being a "global village" is closer to reality. There is no denying the fact that all over the world, educators feel the need for English education, and international students flock to American, Australian, British, and Canadian universities in ever larger numbers. However, we must not forget that they represent the majority of English-users and come with their own identities and world-views. As an experienced writing teacher says (Fox 1994: 74), these "world majority students," who find "the [Inner Circle] academic form dull or dry ("like a skeleton, there's no juicy, meaty part in it," said a Japanese student) or who are disheartened by its implicit competitiveness could join legions of U.S. graduate students who, for a time at least, resist the veiled attacks on other authors, the name-dropping, the abandonment of common-sense vocabulary, the surrender of voice." She goes on to suggest (Fox 1994: 126):

> . . .there are ways to see and experience the world that most of us have never dreamed of, ways of creating and communicating knowledge that are vastly different from what we have long been convinced is "good writing," "good thinking," and "proper understanding." As teachers, we have an obligation to help world majority students [international students] find a voice at the university by explaining in respectful, knowledgeable ways how we expect them to think, investigate, and express themselves in the U.S. context. And if we listen closely to what they have to tell us, we will not only teach more completely but deepen the meaning of our own intellectual lives as well.

And as Geertz (1983: 234) says in the context of anthropological research, "the world is a various place" and it is "various" in many ways:...various between lawyers and anthropologists, various between Muslims and Hindus, various between little traditions and great, various between colonial thens and nationalist nows. . . " Nevertheless, "much is to be gained, scientifically and otherwise, by confronting that grand actuality rather than wishing it away in a haze of forceless generalities and false comforts."

## Conclusion

The English language, as a language of wider communication, has become pluricentric, and carries the weight of various sociocultural identities. Consequently, the language teaching profession faces a situation which provides both challenges and opportunities. The challenge is to see and appreciate the pluricentricity of English and the opportunity is to educate future generations of language professionals in dealing with the complexities of world Englishes.

## Notes

*This is a revised version of the paper presented at JALT '96 in Hiroshima, November 2, 1996.

1. B. Kachru (1985) divides the English-using world into three concentric circles. The Inner Circle consists of the native English-speaking countries, e.g. Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the U.K. and the U.S.A. The Outer Circle comprises the former colonies or spheres of influence of the U.K. and the U.S.A., e.g. India, Kenya, Nigeria, the Philippines, Singapore, among others. In these countries, nativized varieties of English have achieved the status of either an official language, or of a language widely used in education, administration, legal system, etc. The Expanding Circle consists of countries where English is fast becoming a dominant second language in the domains of education, science, and technology, e.g., China, Japan, Taiwan, Thailand, and the countries of Europe.
2. By range is meant the functional allocation of the language in terms of its users, and by depth is meant the penetration of the language in various strata of society across cultures and languages (B. Kachru 1986).

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# *Section Six*

# Linguapax

# UNESCO Linguapax at JALT96

**Kip Cates**
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Given the JALT96 conference site inside Peace Memorial Park in Hiroshima, the international city of peace, it was fitting that a key theme of the four-day event was peace and international understanding. A special feature of the conference, therefore, was the participation of a delegation of language teaching and peace education experts from the International Linguapax Committee of UNESCO.

## UNESCO and the Linguapax Program

UNESCO stands for the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. It was formed in 1946 as a specialized UN agency to support international cooperation in education, science and culture and to promote the UN ideals of human rights, peace and tolerance. Convinced that ignorance of other peoples breeds suspicion and that the best way to prevent war is through education, UNESCO has actively worked to promote international understanding in schools based on its constitution which reads since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed.

Linguapax is an international UNESCO program specifically established to explore how foreign language teaching can promote peace and international understanding. The name LINGUAPAX combines the Latin words "lingua" (= language) and "pax" (= peace) to mean "peace through language learning and teaching". Linguapax brings together international experts in the fields of language teaching, applied linguistics, peace education and education for international understanding to share ideas, work out teaching guidelines, design educational projects and produce publications.

## Linguapax Seminars and Publications

International Linguapax meetings have taken place in Europe and around the world. These include seminars in Kiev, USSR (Linguapax I, 1987), in Sitges, Spain (Linguapax II, 1988), in Saarbrucken, Germany (Linguapax III, 1990), in Barcelona, Spain (Linguapax IV, 1994), and in Melbourne, Australia (Linguapax V, 1995). Working closely with UNESCO on these seminars is the World Federation of Modern Language Associations (FIPLV), a global umbrella organization comprising international teaching associations for languages such as French, German, Spanish, Russian and, of course, English (represented by the organizations TESOL and IATEFL).

Linguapax principles and practice have been documented in a number of publications, beginning with the 1987 Linguapax Kiev Declaration entitled *Content and Methods that Could Contribute in the Teaching of Foreign Languages and Literature to International Understanding and Peace.* Linguapax books published since then include *International Understanding through Foreign Language Teaching* (Classen-Bauer, 1989), *Peace through Language Teaching* (Raasch, 1991), *Language Teaching in a World Without Peace* (Raasch, 1993), *Linguapax IV* (Marti, 1995), *Linguapax V* (Cunningham & Candelier, 1996), *We Live in Just One World* (Grasa & Reig, 1996) and *Languages: Ways towards Peace* (Raasch, 1997).

## UNESCO Linguapax Speakers

The UNESCO Linguapax presence at JALT96 comprised four Special Conference Speakers who attended the conference from Australia, Spain (Catalonia) and Germany:

- **Dr. Felix Marti** (Director, UNESCO Centre of Catalonia, Barcelona) who is president of the International Linguapax Committee, recipient of the 1995 UNESCO Medal for Human Rights and leader of the UNESCO Linguapax delegation to JALT96.

- **Prof. Albert Raasch** (Professor of Applied Linguistics and Foreign Language Education, University of Saarland, Germany) who is an expert on language and peace, and editor of the UNESCO Linguapax books *Peace through Language Teaching* (1991) and *Language Teaching in a World Without Peace* (1993).

- **Mr. Denis Cunningham** (Victorian School of Languages, Australia) who is secretary general of the World Federation of Modern Language Associations (FIPLV), secretary of the Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations (AFMLTA), and organizer of the 1995 Linguapax V Conference in Australia.

- **Prof. Reinhold Freudenstein** (outgoing Director of the Foreign Language Research Information Centre, Philipps University, Germany) who has presented extensively on language teaching and peace education worldwide, and has been newsletter editor for the World Federation of Modern Language Associations (FIPLV).

## UNESCO Linguapax Events at JALT96

Linguapax participation at JALT96 took a number of different forms. These included:

- A Hiroshima Open Forum on the theme of Peace through Education
- A keynote address by Linguapax President Felix Marti on Language Education for World Peace
- Daily Linguapax workshops outlining Linguapax principles and practice in promoting education for international understanding
- A Linguapax colloquium on the theme Linguapax, Language Teaching and Peace Education
- Individual papers by Linguapax speakers on peace-related themes
- A Linguapax display table exhibiting Linguapax publications
- Participation by Linguapax speakers in the JALT96 Final Panel on Crossing Borders: Making Connections

## JALT96 Linguapax Workshops

Each day of JALT96 featured a Linguapax workshop led by the UNESCO Linguapax speakers. These three daily workshops: (1) introduced participants to the Linguapax program, its history and aims; (2) discussed Linguapax projects, plans and materials designed to contribute to international understanding through the teaching of foreign languages and literature; (3) outlined how language teachers can promote peace and tolerance in their classrooms.

At the final workshop session, participants brainstormed ideas for further promoting Linguapax and its work within the language teaching profession. Ideas mentioned included:

- holding teacher training seminars and workshops on peace education and Linguapax
- promoting international teacher and student exchanges through pen pal programs, overseas visits and homestay programs
- writing language textbooks and teaching materials on peace education themes
- encouraging contact between language teachers and peace education groups
- preparing a data base of language teachers involved in peace education projects
- promoting cooperation between language teaching special interest groups (SIGs)
- establishing a Linguapax home page and Internet list or bulletin board

## Linguapax Asia Network

One result which came out of the JALT96 Linguapax sessions was the establishment of a Linguapax Asia Network to promote international understanding through language teaching in the Asia / Pacific region. This informal network aims to link up Asian language teachers interested in the goals of Linguapax so that they can share information and begin working on the suggestions made above. Anyone interested in becoming part of this network should contact either of the following:

- Kip Cates, JALT Global Issues N-SIG, Tottori University, Koyama, Tottori City, JAPAN 680
- International Linguapax Committee, UNESCO Centre of Catalonia, 285 Mallorca, Barcelona 08037, Spain / Catalonia

UNESCO and the International Linguapax Committee were excited about their participation in the conference and the warm response they received. They wish to thank JALT for including them in the program and for giving them the opportunity to talk to language teachers in Japan. They are pleased to have established a Linguapax Asia Network and look forward to discussing further with interested teachers how language teaching in Asia can better promote peace, tolerance and international understanding.

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# Language Education for World Peace

**Felix Marti**
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## Introduction

It is a great honour for me to speak of peace in Hiroshima at the 22nd International Conference of the Japan Association for Language Teaching. In this city, reflections on peace are more pertinent than in other parts of our planet and invitations for new peace projects find their warmest welcome.

Dear friends: this is an important moment in human history. For as far back as our historical memory goes, we have lived immersed in the culture of war, using violence as a means of resolving conflicts between human groups. Now we are in a position to eliminate violence and war. Of course, we are still witness to terrible wars in different parts of the world - violence in Bosnia and Rwanda, the long war in the Sudan, successive wars in Afghanistan, the violence of the Israeli-Palestinian conflict, the revolution in Chiapas or the repression in Tibet. However, the idea of a world at peace is no longer utopian. I am pleased that our conference theme is *Crossing Borders* for I think the great border we are crossing is the one separating the culture of war from the culture of peace.

## An Emerging Culture of Peace

### *Increasing Interdependence*

We have only recently begun to see ourselves as citizens of Planet Earth, rather than solely as members of countries whose national interests we had to defend. In the last 50 years, the relations of interdependence between countries have multiplied and are still growing spectacularly. Modern communication technologies have contributed decisively to this. Today, any disorder at any point has a negative effect on all nations. For this reason, we shall have to make the United Nations into a truly effective political authority capable of resolving global problems. Recent UN conferences have addressed many of these issues: the *UN Conference on Environment and Development* (Rio de Janeiro, 1992), the *World Conference on Human Rights* (Vienna, 1993), on *Population and Development* (Cairo, 1994), on *Women* (Beijing, 1995) and on *Housing* (Istanbul, 1996). However, we have yet to set up the necessary international structures for these. We can all contribute to this: politicians, businessmen, teachers, non-governmental organizations, the mass media, scientists and technicians. I think we prefer reason and solidarity to chaos and violence.

### *The Growing Wish to Participate*

One positive development of our times is the growing prestige of democratic political structures in the face of authoritarian systems. On every continent, dictatorial regimes are steadily giving way and allowing citizens to take part in the running of public life. Democracy needs to be perfected in three areas: economic power, media power and technological power. Remember that financial speculation is larger than the productive economy. Remember that the communications media, which have so much influence over the transmission of ideas, symbols and values, operate exclusively according to market criteria. Remember that a large part of scientific and technological activity is directed towards the war industry. Despite this, the prestige of democracy is growing.There is a substantial relationship between democracy and the culture of peace. Under democratic regimes, people only decide on war in exceptional circumstances. Authoritarian regimes, however, can lead their countries to war at the drop of a hat. We must therefore look with great hope on the progress towards democracy being made by the countries of Eastern Europe, South Africa and Latin America.

### Growing Environmental Awareness

Our new environmental sensibilities reflect a profound change in the way we look on the relationship between human beings and nature. For centuries, what we call Western culture has imposed a relationship characterized by aggressiveness. Man owned nature, considering it an inexhaustible source of resources, and showed no concern for the consequences of industrial development that generated pollution. We now know that we cannot consider ourselves as separate from nature and that any damage to the delicate balance of the biosphere will affect us the same as other species. We shall have to organize new industrial cultures on the basis of sustainability. The patterns of production and consumption we consider normal in the United States, Europe and Japan will have to be dramatically modified. Western culture will have to learn to be humble and value other traditions which have never lost a loving relationship with nature. Ecological awareness seems to me more favourable to peace than technological aggressiveness.

### *An Increasing Respect for Diversity*

Scientific, technological culture was until recently held up as the only valid culture. We now realise that the cultural experience we attribute to white, Anglo-Saxon, English-speaking Protestant males is only one of many legitimate cultural traditions and that there are hundreds of human communities with other cultural values that are equally valuable. At UNESCO, we say that all cultures and languages are equally worthy, an idea developed in the 1995 UNESCO *Declaration on Tolerance* which begins Tolerance consists in respecting, accepting and appreciating the rich diversity of cultures in our world. Opposing this are the fundamentalist trends which would impose a single interpretation of truth, a single code of conduct, a single authority, a single aesthetic. However, the recognition and appreciation of diversity are gaining ground all over the world. Before, diversity was a cause of fear. Now, we celebrate it.

*Expanding Intercultural Dialogue*

In an interdependent world, we must be able to establish consensus on the basis of international coexistence. For this reason, international governmental and non-governmental organizations are establishing platforms for dialogue between the worlds various cultures to discover shared concerns, common ethical orientations and the possibility of sharing responsibilities. One example is the 1993 Declaration toward a Global Ethic approved by the Parliament of the Worlds Religions in Chicago. We must also agree on basic ethical values. Young people all over the world are asking what our values are. On every continent, we are threatened by nihilism, scepticism and pragmatism while, on a global level, we see systems of dominance, the rule of the strongest and group selfishness. To construct peace, values of another kind must triumph. I think there are three which, under different names, can be found in all cultures: freedom, justice and solidarity. I believe these will be the values of the international ethic of the future.

*New Political and Economic Structures*

The political system of states, with their armies, borders, currencies and sovereignties, is becoming outdated. There are continents in which state borders were laid down by colonial powers and do not take into account ethnic or cultural realities. There are states comprising more than one nation and nations divided between several states. This whole system will have to be reformed. In the economic sphere, we now understand the mechanisms which on one hand lead to an excessive concentration of wealth and on the other generate marginalization, unemployment and hardship. We have a political and moral duty to change this system so that the economy is placed at the service of human development, takes into account job shortages resulting from new technologies and shares universal wealth more fairly.

*New Concepts of Security*

Until the fall of the Berlin Wall, national security was thought of in military terms. The countries of the UN Security Council still maintain militaristic concepts of security and are themselves the chief arms exporters. But ideas on security are changing. We prefer today to assess security in terms of food, health, housing, education and the environment. We have also made good progress in techniques for preventing and solving conflicts. Never like today have people turned to the United Nations for mediation, dialogue and peace agreements. For the first time in human history, violence is becoming discredited as a method of solving conflicts.

## Languages and Peace

*The Treasure of Languages*

Each language expresses one of many possible human wisdoms. Languages are at once interpretations of reality, mythical and symbolic constructs, settings for rational life, expressions of community identities, territories for communication and dialogue. Languages are the most prodigious productions of human creativity. They must therefore be considered a common treasure of humanity. Each language is both the heritage of the community that expresses itself in that language, and the heritage of the whole of humanity. The differences between languages must not be interpreted in a way that allows the establishment of hierarchies between them. All languages are equally worthy regardless of the number of people who speak the language, the political and economic power of the linguistic community that expresses itself in it, the legal status of the language or its presence in education or the media. Love for all languages is a basic condition for world peace.

In the course of human history, violence has often been exerted in the linguistic field. I myself have experienced it in my own lifetime. I belong to the Catalan linguistic community. Catalan is a language derived from Latin and spoken by 10 million people. I was born during the dictatorship of General Franco, who governed Spain for almost 40 years. I was not able to learn my language at school and never saw a newspaper written in my language until I was 38. My language was banned and persecuted. Many languages, in many parts of the world, have experienced or still experience similar situations. To construct peace we must love all languages and create the conditions for them to live in freedom.

### *Linguistic Diversity*

We have not yet made a rigorous inventory of human linguistic diversity. In his book, A Guide to the Worlds Languages, Merrith Ruhlen says there are about 5,000 living languages in the world (Ruhlen, 1987). According to Michel Malherbe (1983), the most widely spoken languages are the Chinese of Beijing (Mandarin), English, Hindi-Urdu, Spanish, Russian, Indonesian, Arabic, Portuguese, Bengali, French, Japanese and German. Forty-seven countries have English as their official language, 21 have Arabic and 20 have Spanish.

The real problem lies in the weakness of languages spoken by linguistic communities with small populations and with little or no political or legal recognition. Some linguists have warned of the probable disappearance of 1,000 languages in the next 20 years. This disaster is as serious as the loss of biodiversity—even more serious because languages are the most valuable expression of the human spirit. Protection of diversity is a basic peace principle and the protection of weak or threatened languages is one objective of the philosophy of peace. UNESCO has therefore decided to draw up a regular world report on the state of languages so as to contribute to the awareness by all countries of the need to protect linguistic diversity. UNESCO hopes that you, as language teachers, will be the most enthusiastic defenders of human linguistic diversity.

### *Linguistic Rights*

If we are determined to protect the worlds languages, we must create legal mechanisms to make this protection effective. For this reason, a *Universal Declaration of Linguistic Rights* was drawn up on June 6, 1996 for UNESCO so as to become a United Nations International Convention. The World Conference on Linguistic Rights is working for the adoption of the Convention by UN member states.

One key idea of the Declaration is that of considering both individual linguistic rights and the linguistic rights of communities, since a language is not effectively protected unless we consider the rights of its community. If we analyse the conflicts on every continent, we shall discover factors of a cultural and linguistic type in all of them. The two chief trends in the world today are globalization and the affirmation of community identities. These two trends can be perfectly harmonized. I believe the Universal Declaration of Linguistic Rights is an important step in the protection of cultural and linguistic identities and will contribute to world peace. I do not think it will go down well with those who want to maintain systems of cultural or linguistic imperialism, but to create world peace the old cultural imperialism must be replaced by new forms of cultural democracy. I invite all language teachers to help spread the letter and spirit of the Universal Declaration of Linguistic Rights.

### *Linguistic Policies*

There are peaceful linguistic policies and linguistic policies that generate conflict. In the last few years, we have seen positive changes in every continent: the Republic of South Africa and Ethiopia in Africa; Bolivia and other Andean countries in Latin America; Australia, Cambodia, Russia, Spain and many other countries that have recognized their linguistic plurality and renewed laws and practices in a democratic and peaceful spirit. Linguistic policy must promote the self-esteem of the languages of each community, access to the languages of neighbouring linguistic communities and access to a language of universal scope. These objectives can be achieved with a suitable judicial system, through political measures and with a linguistic education adopted to each situation.

In some African countries, the excessive prestige given to the language of the colonizers needs to be compensated through measures aimed at promoting self-esteem. In other countries, monolingual English-Spanish- or French-speakers must be encouraged to speak other languages. There is a general need to promote a multilingualism not oriented exclusively in favour of the dominant international languages. It would not be a good thing if learning foreign languages in practice represented a step towards universal monolingualism.

### *Multilingual Education*

Multilingual education can be a valuable instrument for the culture of peace. Crossing the border of the first language can mean empathizing with another culture, with other communities, with another view of the world and with other values. Language teachers are in a position to exercise their trade with a definite aim: to establish bridges of friendship between different cultures, to present human diversity as something positive, to arouse a taste for the variety of human traditions, to discover the cultural conditioning of our opinions, options and values, to call for openness of spirit, to promote tolerance, to learn to dialogue, to respect differences and to get along together.

I would like to stress that what can make language teaching into education for peace is a definite intentionality — that is, specific teaching aims and methods to promote intercultural understanding. The goal is to encourage a change of mentality (I understand people who arent like me) and a change of attitude (I can be a friend and partner of people from other human communities). Multilingual education must fight the prejudices, stereotypes and sectarianism that underpin the culture of war. If we can speak other peoples languages, we shall have a better chance of understanding their points of view, values and priorities and will have access to their memory, hopes and dreams. For all these reasons, we at UNESCO want to honor all language teachers who see themselves as educators for peace.

### Linguapax

To end, I would like to remind you that UNESCO has created a specific programme to help promote language teaching as a means to education for peace - the Linguapax Project. Linguapax acts in three fields according to the three great challenges I have mentioned. Linguapax advises UNESCO member states in matters of linguistic policy or planning. Linguapax promotes the protection of the worlds linguistic diversity, for which it is preparing the first report on the state of the worlds languages, and supports the Universal Declaration of Linguistic Rights. Linguapax promotes the creation and trial of teaching materials to help teachers of language become educators for peace. These methods have been tested in Europe and work groups set up in Australia and Latin America.

I hope this conference in Hiroshima will lead to the creation of a Linguapax Network in Asia and that in 1997 we shall be able to complete the network with seminars in Africa. I would like to thank all the teachers who have listened to me and the Japan Association for Language Teaching, which has given special consideration to Linguapax at its 22nd international conference. I am confident that Hiroshima will inspire us with new projects and commitments for world peace.

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# Linguapax, Language Learning and Technology

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## Introduction

UNESCOs Linguapax project fosters the sharing of experience and expertise in domains which impinge upon peace: politics, law, economics, human rights, language policy, education, cultural understanding and tolerance. The role of technology is a new factor in promoting these aims. It is in the marriage of education and emerging technologies that I see the potential for furthering real and potential gains for peace.

A search of the literature reveals a significant amount of academic research and empirical studies on peace and an explosion of articles, journals and monographs devoted to technological advances in education. Between the poles of peace and technology, however, there has been little attempt to build a bridge to traverse the gap between the two. The objective of this paper is to cement that bridge, to underscore that essential continuum. The emphasis will be on emerging technologies, in an attempt to demonstrate how these can assist with the promotion of peace through language learning, cross-cultural understanding and tolerance.

## Underlying Philosophy

It should be stressed at the outset - before everyone develops the impression that I am a techno-head - that the desired model for second language learning in Australian schools is for students to have regular face-to-face contact with an empathetic, linguistically competent and pedagogically sound practitioner for the largest amount of time possible on a weekly basis. This suggests that "content-based immersion programs be promoted as the best models for achieving high levels of communicative competence in LOTE (ie Languages other than English) (Ministerial Advisory Council, 1994, pg. 7)

The learning of languages is an international priority and necessity. Yet, politics and bureaucracy often place unrealistic demands on teacher supply. We just do not have a sufficient number of qualified language teachers to staff the number of classes desired. We thus cannot address through conventional means the political, community and educational demands for languages in Australian schools. This is particularly so for certain languages. *Australia's Language: the Australian Language and Literacy Policy* (1991) behoves individual states and territories to identify eight from among the following priority languages: Aboriginal languages, Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Modern Greek, Russian, Spanish, Thai and Vietnamese.

A subsequent report, *Asian Languages and Australia's Economic Future*, states that the languages Australia should focus on for the future are: Japanese, Chinese (Mandarin), Indonesian and Korean. This accentuates the pressure as these have not been, until very recently, the major languages taught in Australian schools. To address this need, other alternatives must be sought. Various solutions present themselves:

1. We could place a moratorium on the introduction of language programs. This, however, would not meet with

the approval of governments and projected targets. The report *Asian Languages and Australia's Economic Future*, for example, recommends 25% of Year 12 students doing a Language Other Than English (LOTE) by the Year 2006 (p ix).

2. We could compromise on the linguistic competence of the instructors and dispense with the quality control procedures undertaken through accreditation interviews.

3. We could recycle qualified teachers of other languages (eg French, German, Italian, etc.) in crash courses of Chinese, Indonesian, Japanese and Korean. Yet, how competent would any of us be in a language after only twenty hours!

4. We could undertake extensive language upgrading and retraining programs to assist existing teachers to teach these languages until the supply of newly qualified teachers meets the demand. This is now being undertaken.

5. We could use technology as a medium of delivery for isolated teachers to provide them with language upgrading and retraining programs through audioconferencing, video, CD-ROM and the Internet as well as residential workshops, and homestays in the country of the language being studied. This is being undertaken quite successfully.

6. We could capitalise upon emerging technologies as a medium of delivery of quality languages programs to students otherwise denied the opportunity to learn. Such initiatives are already underway.

It is *not* a question of technology driving the curriculum or replacing teachers, to answer a common fear. We must retain the high quality of the language programs being offered. To do otherwise would deny the possibility of cross-cultural understanding, tolerance and peace as the communication skills desired would not be achieved. The likely result: antipathy towards the people and culture of the language being "learned"—the reverse of what we are trying to achieve!

### Social Justice

Implied in this philosophy is the need to address issues of social justice - specifically, equity and access. Language teacher shortage is far more acute in rural areas of Australia and it is highly unlikely we could meet this need only through conventional means. Remote students often have no access to either educational programs of/in the language or to native speakers of languages other than English within their local community. Technological advances thus provide the sole vehicle through which otherwise deprived learners can access language programs.

### The Learners

We have entered the Information Age where, for many of us, technology is a reality. Our children are being brought up in an age where they are surrounded by a range of technologies with which they (may) feel far more comfortable than we do. My five year-old daughter, for example, at the age of two could operate the VCR quite competently!

Implicit in this reality is the desirability of encouraging competence and comfort in the use of emerging technologies. It is highly likely that the future will manifest an increasing degree of computer and technology literacy, some acquired before embarking upon formal education. This is likely to have an impact on the preferred learning styles of young learners. Courses which incorporate computer and technology components are likely to appear more relevant to young learners and could motivate students to learn and continue these programs. This has been the case for boys especially since, in the past, they have represented the major group in attrition from language programs.

### Open Learning and Technology

We have touched upon technology as a medium for delivering language programs, as a tool in modern society and as a focus of education. These three emphases impinge upon the open nature of education required for the twenty-first century. This is known as open learning - an approach that technology works well to promote. Neil Elliott (1994: 1-2) argues that, in schools, a course may be open in one or more of the following ways:

- in providing a choice of content from a wide range of options
- in choice of learning method and media
- in choice of the place at which learning can occur
- in providing frequent, varied and informative feedback on learning progress
- in the numbers and backgrounds of people who can help the learner to learn
- in providing a choice of when learning may take place

## Emerging Technologies: Some Examples

Let us now consider some configurations of open learning where different technologies have been introduced to provide students with access to enhanced language programs. This may be the only means for students to learn another language, encounter another culture and be motivated to embark upon the journey of language learning. To deny them this opportunity could well be to deny them the only pathway through which they could develop cross-cultural understanding and tolerance, and a consideration of peace through the learning of a language other than English.

### *(a) Distance Education*

In the past, the sole access to languages for some remote students has been through distance education courses. These have been largely print-based but are now complemented by regular face-to-face seminars, audioconferencing, audio and video cassettes. As most schools acquire CD-ROM capacity and access to the Internet, course components are being expanded for these media.

### *(b) Audiographics*

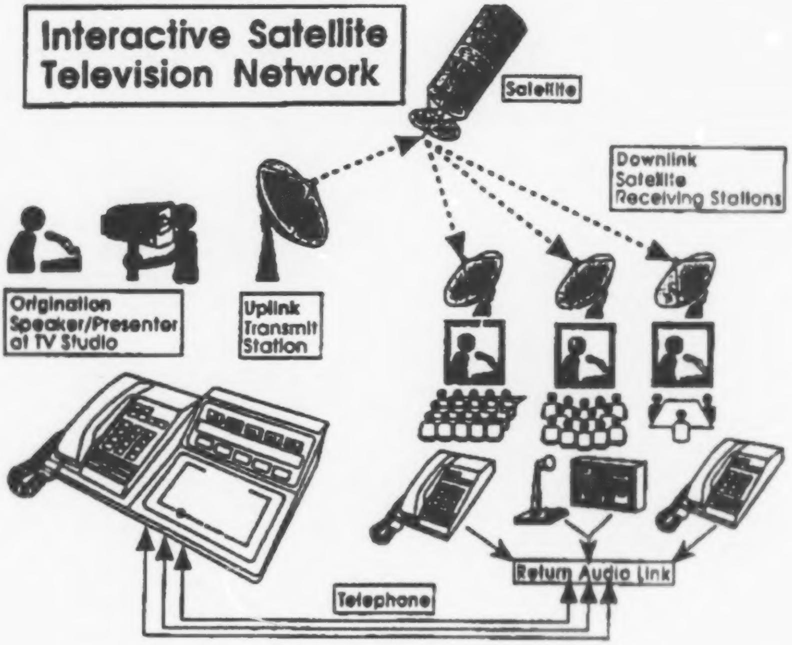
Audiographics emerged in the late 1980s to address the needs of disadvantaged learners in rural Victoria. The focus was on learners in small numbers who found themselves isolated for reasons of geography, curriculum choice or teacher unavailability. They were usually in local telephone districts but often in different schools, towns or cities. By grouping them together through modern technology, they could be formed into "classes" and provided access to a competent teacher at another location.

In addition to the teacher and students, the basic elements of the classroom are texts, visual, and oral/aural factors. In audiographics, the fax supplements texts, audioconferencing accommodates the oral/aural component, and computer networking replicates the roles of the blackboard and overhead transparency. A specific program, *Electronic Classroom*, was developed for this purpose, with the content often transferred to an overhead screen for larger groups of students. This became the best means for many students to acquaint themselves with the language and culture of another country.

### *(c) Interactive Satellite Television*

An ambitious initiative undertaken by the Directorate of School Education of Victoria, interactive satellite television (ISTV) involved the installation in 1994 of satellite receiver dishes in all Victorian schools so that teachers and students could remain in their own institutions and receive a range of corporate messages, professional development and/or curriculum content.

Similar to satellite broadcasting of regular TV programs, ISTV programs are filmed in a studio and beamed out in real time to a numerous, dispersed audience situated at receiving sites within a (closed) network or covered by a 'footprint'. Recipients can fax or phone in their contributions to be shared or heard by those at all sites. This has become the medium through which to resolve issues of access and equity, teacher upgrading and retraining, and LOTE delivery to a multitude of students otherwise unable to learn another language.


Interactive Satellite Television Network
Satellite
Downlink Satellite Receiving Stations
Origination Speaker/Presenter at TV Studio
Uplink Transmit Station
Return Audio Link
Telephone

Directorate of School Education - Victoria (Assistance of OTEN gratefully acknowledged)

**Figure 1 : Interactive Satellite Television Network**

ISTV gave rise in 1994 to what became known as PALS—Primary Access to Languages via Satellite—in which bi-weekly lessons were delivered to primary schools electing to offer Indonesian, Italian and Japanese. The undertaking was substantial, embracing the following numbers in Victoria alone:

| Language | schools | classes | students |
|---|---|---|---|
| Italian | 76 | 159 | *ca* 6000 |
| Indonesian | 163 | 350 | *ca* 8000 |
| Japanese | 194 | 371 | *ca* 8000 |

The professional development and language training of the 853 participating classroom teachers for the 21,763 students involved was conducted by the Victorian School of Languages in a package which included weekend workshops, resource materials and weekly ISTV broadcasts. The PALS program expanded in 1995 to include six languages—Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian and Japanese—across two levels: middle and upper primary. In 1996, SALS (Secondary Access to Languages via Satellite) programs were also offered to secondary students.

While the primary objective is to provide language skills to (remote) Australian students and access to non-Anglo-Celtic cultures, the PALS program also aims to encourage non-language teachers to embrace the language and culture of another country, improve their language skills, develop positive attitudes towards the foreign culture and act as positive agents of change in fostering cross-cultural understanding in their students. The following quotes (Davis 1995: 2-3) demonstrate the effects of the program:

> by (...) "offering Languages Other Than English (LOTE) through PALS to students there has been a growing appreciation of LOTE and their

> associated cultures"
>
> "Teachers have found that the LOTE is an avenue for developing a wider cultural awareness in their students..."
>
> "What has actually eventuated is quite an enthusiasm for the learning of a foreign language by teachers"
>
> "Professional development days for LOTE once attracted a few of the dedicated LOTE teachers; now, anything up to sixty teachers from primary and secondary background turn up to contribute to and partake of the days' activities"

### *(d) Electronic Mail and the Internet*

Electronic mail offers further potential for communication, albeit written, across geographical barriers. As an increasing number of schools take on electronic mail, communication becomes possible in many languages leading, perhaps in a small way, to enhanced understanding of others, tolerance and peace. We often read and hear of the potential offered by the Internet. It appears logical to predict that with its tripartite offering of communication, information and entertainment, and its invasion into education, business and homes, the Information Superhighway will play a major role in bringing individuals closer together across the globe.

### *(e) Diverse Media*

There are at least thirty other discrete or interdependent media (Cunningham, 1996) which have been explored or developed to varying degrees and which embrace a consideration of languages. These may include the use of off-shore satellite broadcast materials in a range of languages, interactive books, CALL packages, CD-ROM and other multimedia.

## Conclusion

While the connection between technology and peace may seem nebulous for some, we believe that the use of technological developments and new media can motivate teachers and students to learn a second language and thus journey further along the pathway towards acquiring competence in another language, arriving at an understanding of its culture and developing positive attitudes towards others. Speaking the language of another does not guarantee peace but, by abandoning monolingualism, individuals can expand the number of global co-inhabitants with whom they can communicate and commence to understand and accept. Technology can, as we have shown, offer the only medium through which languages can be accessed by some students. Access to the languages and cultures of others, even if delivered technologically, is a preferable alternative to denying learners the opportunity to acquire another language and achieve the goals of LINGUAPAX.

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# Modern Language Teaching after the Year 2000

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Imagine having met 100 years ago in November 1896. The conference would probably have been organized by an association of modern language teachers - had it existed - primarily interested in philological problems and the teaching of grammar, translation and literature.

A few years earlier, a German professor of English, Wilhelm Vietor, had written a book entitled Foreign language teaching must change (Vietor, 1882). He could not understand why modern languages were taught in the same way as the ancient languages, Latin and Greek, on the basis of grammar and translation. He wanted to see the grammar-translation method replaced by direct contact with the foreign language in meaningful situations. He had started a movement which resulted in the direct methods supported by linguists like Jespersen and Palmer.

The statements by the leaders of this movement make stimulating reading: Vietor (1902: 30): On the basis of word lists and rules you cannot learn how to speak and understand. Otto Jespersen (1904: 96): The disadvantage of dictation, as of all written class work, is that it consumes more time than oral exercises. Or take Palmer (1917: 116): A certain number of regular sentences should be thoroughly assimilated in the early stages in order to serve as model sentences to be developed by the student in the form of substitution tables. At that time, the main languages taught in European higher education were - besides Latin and Greek - English, French and German, and the main media of instruction were the blackboard, chalk and textbook - the same items used by Comenius in the 17th century.

If you look at the foreign language scene today, not much has changed. In many European states, English, French or German and Latin are still the leading school languages. A few years ago, Vietors book was republished after 100 years, and most of his comments are still valid (Schroder, 1984). Of course, there have been changes. Text-books look very different now and more young people - specifically girls - have the chance to learn foreign languages than in the past. Foreign language learning at school is no longer the privilege of an elite. And the objectives in the foreign language curriculum have changed considerably, particularly since American scholars like Fries and Lado re-introduced the audio-lingual method on a scientific basis (Fries, 1952; Lado, 1964).

Since then, communicative competence has replaced goals like learning about masterpieces of great writers. But the teaching and learning of foreign languages at school has not really changed as far as results are concerned. In spite of modern objectives like teaching communicative skills, most of our students have no practical command of the language they have learned. A 1989 survey in Germany revealed that only 58% of the population could use English in everyday situations, 22% French, 7% Italian, 5% Spanish and only 1.6% Russian - fewer than those learning Latin. In a more recent German study, only 35% of the population confessed that they knew a foreign language well enough to negotiate or write a letter. Obviously something is wrong with the teaching of foreign languages at school level. One reason is that 40 - 60% of language instruction time is devoted solely to teaching formal grammar (Zimmermann, 1984: 31).

So far, in the history of European foreign language teaching, we have done nothing but modify what has traditionally been normal procedure. This is why - at regular intervals - there are the same complaints about ineffective language teaching. If we want the situation to change during the next 10, 20 or 30 years, six guidelines should be observed.

### Guideline 1: The first foreign language should be taught at primary level.

There is early foreign language teaching in Austria, Finland, Luxembourg and Italy. In Germany, three federal states started obligatory early foreign language teaching in 1993. But in most European countries, language learning starts much later, at the beginning of secondary education.

What are the advantages of an early start? There is sufficient evidence from research and experience that young children can achieve success unsurpassed by other age groups (Freudenstein, 1979). In pronunciation, they can establish a sound basis for life-long foreign language use. Bilingual children can be superior in verbal and non-verbal behaviour. Intellectually, a childs experience with two languages seems to give greater mental flexibility, superiority in concept formation and more diversified mental abilities. Early language experience may also determine language aptitude.

Children who start a foreign language early in life can better understand their native language since they become conscious of language as a phenomenon. Their cultural outlook is wider than that of monolingual children who often believe that their own culture, language and customs are the only ones that matter in the world. Introducing a foreign idiom into the childs world helps to develop tolerance towards people who are different, and therefore contributes to international understanding.

In most early language programmes, learning starts in the third year of primary school. In future, it should begin when children start their formal education, in the first year of primary school. There are already many successful foreign language projects even at pre-school level. In the German Waldorf school system, for example, primary language teaching starts with two languages taught simultaneously where parents can choose between English, French and Russian.

The question of which languages to teach can only be answered by considering the local situation. It could be the language of a neighbouring country or of an ethnic group in the local community. If early foreign language learning is a contribution to general education, it really does not matter which language is chosen.

### Guideline 2: All schools should become bilingual institutions.

Why should it not be possible in a multicultural and multilingual society to introduce bilingual education as the standard form of school? Wherever schools offer bilingual schemes, only positive results have been seen.

In the past, learning foreign languages was regarded as a difficult task, and was excluded from many curricula. Now, it is common knowledge that language learning need not be more difficult than other subjects. It is the methods we use that make it difficult. If foreign language instruction starts at primary level and learning is play-oriented and focussed on childrens interests, there is hope that after four years of instruction, various school subjects could be taught in the foreign language. This means each school could become a bilingual institution. The advantages of using a second language for regular instruction are obvious. When History, Geography, or Mathematics is offered in Spanish, English or French, children learn to use and accept different languages for general education and not purely for the sake of language learning.

If this guideline is accepted, basic changes can be foreseen in two areas. First, initial teacher training must be reorganised so that foreign language teachers can teach other school subjects besides the language they have studied. Secondly, we need new teaching materials for bilingual schools. Authentic textbooks from other countries could be used, and new materials designed for bilingual classrooms. An encouraging beginning in Germany was the publication of Geography and History textbooks in English called There and Then and Around the World which cover topics like Food and harvests and The Olympic Games

(Biederstadt and Whittaker, 1992). More such materials should be offered in coming years so that the foreign language can gradually become a second language.

## Guideline 3: All children should learn two languages at school.

The Commission of the European Union and the Council of Europe are in favour of this, and most educators agree: every child should have the chance to learn at least two languages during his or her school life.

By learning another language I mean learning to communicate in that language. For more than a century, language teaching in Europe has been regarded as a gateway to a so-called higher culture, great literature and foreign civilisation. Many Europeans still believe that language learning should remain the privilege of an elite or—what is worse—that knowing a foreign language is not necessary.

There is a story that German Chancellor Helmut Kohl, when asked why he never learned English, replied: The German people have elected me as Chancellor, not as an interpreter. If such an attitude prevails, there is no room for a new and progressive language policy. We can only hope for a vital, functioning, living European Union if its citizens can communicate with each other in many languages.

Seen worldwide, a knowledge of other languages is—in spite of a wide-spread belief—not the exception, but the rule. In the multicultural Europe of the 21st century, learning and using several languages should not be regarded as a luxury for a few, but as a prerequisite for all.

## Guideline 4: The number of languages at school should be increased.

The usual number of languages offered at school is three. In the European Union, however, all languages of its member states have equal status, and all must become part of the curriculum.

Of course, not all official languages of the Union—eleven so far, but soon twelve or fifteen—can be offered in every school. But these languages could be offered within a reasonable distance from each citizens home. Cooperative programmes could be set up so that public and private schools, commercial language centres and adult schools together cover the needs of language learners. The German adult education association hopes to convince all adult language centres to offer, by the year 2000, courses in all languages of the European Union. Programmes like this are necessary to prepare people for their future lives: a French teacher working in Greece, a German doctor practising in Portugal, an Italian baker working in Denmark - these will be no exceptions 20 years from now.

I hope that, in future, people within the United States of Europe will think of their neighbours in the same way that Americans in the United States of America think of their fellow citizens. Ideally there should not be Italians, Germans and other nationalities, but Italian Europeans, German Europeans and so on. And these Europeans should be bi- or multilingual so that the Union can function. Other important languages should also be offered in and outside schools, such as Eastern and Northern European, Asian and Arabic languages. More languages must be added to the curriculum to prepare effective communication in the 21st century.

## Guideline 5: The time of instruction should be shortened.

One of the shortcomings of traditional foreign language teaching at school is the long time languages have to be studied. Lets face it: it is demotivating to spend five, seven or even nine years on the same subject. I therefore propose that a foreign language should not be offered for more than four years in school. This is enough time to enable each learner to acquire a basic knowledge to build on should it become necessary later.

In many European school systems, pupils in advanced foreign language classes have to study literature and deal with complex grammatical problems as if they are preparing for a future as language teachers and professors of philology. But, most of our students have entirely other foreign language needs. They want to become business people, work in commerce and industry, and need not know much about Shakespeare or French classics. The majority of learners are better served by short, communicative courses in several languages than by long-term language classes of the traditional type.

New forms of language instruction have therefore to be introduced. I have already mentioned bilingual education. Let me name a few more. Compact courses could shorten the time for language learning and at the same time guarantee better results (Freudenstein, 1989). The so-called alternative methods—from community language learning and suggestopedia to superlearning and the Silent Way—seem to work, since institutions offering them have no problems recruiting language learners for their (often expensive) programmes. In Germany, a teacher once taught one year of traditional French instruction within three weeks—two weeks at the beginning of the school year and one week at the end—with remarkable results. The intensive course pupils were simply better in their oral performance compared to classes taught the ordinary way four hours a week by textbook instruction (Preisendorfer, 1974).

In Switzerland, a teacher of French did away with the textbook and instituted learning in freedom. His pupils could do whatever they liked during the four class hours per week, as long as it had to do with French. Some read newspapers, others listened to records or talked about their interests. At the end of the year, these pupils showed better communicative results than those taught in the traditional way (Kaufmann, 1977). These examples show there are many ways to improve foreign language learning. Unfortunately not many teachers—let alone administrators—believe in them. Whenever I describe the learning in freedom project, the normal reaction is: Impossible—that can't be true! Much work must still be done to convince teachers there are better ways of instruction than those they experienced and those they practise in their classrooms.

### Guideline 6: The regular language teacher should be the native speaker.

Whenever I propose this in my country, many teachers disagree. They claim a teacher should know the language of the students, have been educated in the school system in which they teach, and should be accepted by students as one of us, not as a foreigner. I do not believe this ideology.

Within the European Union, native speakers can no longer be regarded as foreigners. If they leave their country and move to another state, they are still living in Europe. Thus, there are French Europeans, Spanish Europeans, etc. available for teaching.

Native speakers are the best language teachers, provided they are properly trained, because they have a total command of the language they use and teach. They speak the language better than teachers who have learned it as a foreign language, and can react to communicative situations spontaneously and realistically. Native speakers are the rule when teaching languages for communicative skills - in private language schools, industrial firms and adult education courses. In order to qualify native speakers to teach their mother tongues, new courses of teacher education must be introduced.

I have a vision. By the middle of the next century, all French classes in Europe will be taught by native French teachers, all classes in Italian by teachers from Italy, all classes in German by German teachers. This is the way forward to a truly multilingual, multicultural society.

These six guidelines could become the basis for a new language policy in Europe They may not constitute the best possible framework, but they are at least a framework. More people should think about them so that a suitable model can be put into practice—the earlier, the better—to prepare the next generation for a future worth living—in many languages.

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# Colloquium: Linguapax, Language Teaching and Peace Education

**Kip Cates**
*Tottori University*

**Participants:**

**Kip Cates, (Moderator)** *Tottori University*, Japan
**Felix Marti,** *International Linguapax Committee*, UNESCO
**Denis Cunningham,** *Victoria School of Languages*, Australia
**Madeleine du Vivier,** *International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language* (IATEFL), England
**Albert Raasch,** *Saarland University*, Germany
**Reinhold Freudenstein,** *Philipps University*, Germany

## Introduction

This colloquium, sponsored by JALTs Global Issues in Language Education National Special Interest Group (N-SIG), addressed the theme of language teaching and peace education with a focus on UNESCOs Linguapax project. It brought together a number of key figures in the Linguapax movement to discuss how foreign language educators can contribute through their teaching to world peace and improved international understanding. Kip Cates, coordinator of JALTs Global Issues N-SIG, began the session by introducing the five colloquium panelists: (1) Felix Marti, President of the International Linguapax Committee and Director of the UNESCO Center of Catalonia in Barcelona,; (2) Denis Cunningham, secretary of the World Federation of Modern Language Associations (FIPLV), secretary of the Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations (AFMLTA) and organizer of the UNESCO Linguapax V conference in Australia; (3) Madeleine du Vivier, Chairperson of the UK-based International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL); (4) Albert Raasch, professor of Applied Linguistics at the University of Saarland, Germany and editor of the 1991 UNESCO Linguapax book Peace through Language Teaching; and (5) Reinhold Freudenstein, outgoing Director of the Foreign Language Research Information Centre, Philipps University, Germany.

### Marti: Linguapax, Language and the Culture of Peace

Dr. Felix Marti, President of the International Linguapax Committee, began by reviewing the points made in his conference keynote and by re-emphasizing the commitment of UNESCO to assist language teachers around the world in promoting a culture of peace.

Linguapax, he said, is a network of professionals in the teaching of languages and other subjects who believe in the importance of promoting respect for cultural and linguistic diversity in education systems around the world. Language teachers can assist this aim by helping their students to value diversity and respect differences as called for by the United Nations Year for Tolerance in 1995.

He explained how Linguapax is also an international initiative in the field of education for peace. It aims to create the conviction that peace is desirable and possible in conflict situations, and strives to eliminate through education the problems at the root of violence and war. To achieve these aims, Linguapax has devised specific sets of educational guidelines, methods and materials developed in regional contexts which can be adopted by teachers of foreign languages to promote peace and international understanding. One example he cited was a practical collection of classroom teaching materials developed in Barcelona which deals with topics such as global interdependence, cooperation and conflict, images, perceptions and stereotypes, and environmental problems.

### Cunningham: Language and Peace: An Australian Perspective

The second panelist, Denis Cunningham, gave examples of Australian initiatives in fostering tolerance, harmony and peace through foreign language teaching. He began by noting how Australias post-World War II migration led to an influx of Non-English Speaking Background (NESB) communities whose languages - as those of the Aboriginal peoples before them - were neither accepted nor encouraged by the wider English-speaking Australian community. In the 1970s, these NESB groups attracted increasing political, legal and economic support from the government so that, by the 1980s, multiculturalism had replaced assimilationism, and monolingualism began giving way to multilingualism.

He explained how a number of key language policy documents reflect the various rationales - enrichment, economics , equality - for choosing which languages to teach, The 1991 *Australia's Language: The Australian Language and Literacy Policy* requested states to identify a core of eight from the following priority languages: Aboriginal languages, Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Modern Greek, Russian, Spanish, Thai and Vietnamese. The 1994 report *Asian Languages and Australia's Economic Future* emphasized economics, focussing on the "big four" languages: Japanese, Chinese (Mandarin), Indonesian and Korean. At the same time, a strong push for "community languages" led to the introduction in primary schools of languages reflecting local ethnic communities. This trend reflected the *equality* rationale, enunciated in a 1987 policy statement (Lo Bianco, p. 56), aimed at achieving social justice and overcoming disadvantages. This evolving choice of languages in education, he said, demonstrates the thrust towards tolerance, acceptance, integration and peace within the Australian community.

Cunningham then cited examples of projects and publications where the objective, through languages, was on the fostering of tolerance, harmony and peace.

- *The Other 364 Days : Beyond the International Day* (1987) - a text where students focus firstly upon their own culture, then consider 'intercultural interaction' and finally move on to *'intercultural communication'*.

- *Immigrants in the Bush* (Dunn, 1989) - a text designed to help students develop and mature as socially sensitive, thinking human beings living in a diverse society. The materials offer opportunities for developing social knowledge, changing attitudes towards cultural differences, attacking ethnocentrism and prejudice, and bringing new perspectives to Australian identity" (pg. 11)

- *Globalchild* (Cech, 1991) - a teaching text which stresses commonalities among cultures, rather than confrontations, so as to help adults and children experience multiculturalism without feeling alienated or threatened. The book chooses a familiar seasonal format rather than more abstract anti-racist themes to ease the transition from the known to the unknown.

- *Jamjoon : A Profile of Islam* (El Erian, 1990) - a series of cross-curriculum teaching materials written for young Muslim and non-Muslim learners in multi-ethnic communities where Muslims live as a minority. This provides relevant information on Islam and targets the needs of groups misunderstood or victimised for reasons of race, religion, culture and/or politics.

Cunningham emphasized the effectiveness of content-based immersion approaches. Through placing students in another language environment, facilitating thinking in the second language and instilling an awareness of alternative ways of viewing reality, this serves as an effective means of appreciating linguistic and cultural differences and engendering tolerance and peace.

## Du Vivier: Linguapax and IATEFL: An International Perspective

The third speaker, Madeleine du Vivier, spoke about the aims of UNESCOs Linguapax program from her perspective as Chair of the UK-based International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL). In her talk, she discussed the importance of peace and international understanding as language teaching goals and commented on the work of IATEFL in promoting these through its international activities.

Du Vivier mentioned a number of issues concerning the teaching of peace in language classrooms. One concerns the power that the teacher wields in the classroom vis-a-vis students and how this should be used when introducing global issues. Another concerns the way in which peace education relates to the instrumental role of English teaching. How should teachers handle global issues and peace education when students wish to focus on the utilitarian aspect of language learning in courses such as English for science and technology or English for business?

Du Vivier went on to describe a number of initiatives by her organization IATEFL in the area of peace education, global education and foreign language teaching:

- IATEFL formed a Global Issues Special Interest Group (GISIG) in April 1996. This now works through its SIG activities and international newsletter to promote discussion among IATEFLs membership of global issues including peace, human rights and the environment, and of global education as an approach to language teaching.

- IATEFL helps contribute to global awareness through its annual international conference. This brings together language educators from over 75 nations round the globe who build international networks of like-minded colleagues as they share experiences, problems, projects and plans in the teaching of English in countries around the world

- IATEFL contributes to an awareness of social issues through the themes dealt with in its conferences and publications. In addition to an annual global issues conference strand of papers, workshops and colloquia organized by the GISIG, this includes conference presentations and journal articles on topics such as language and gender, and language and power.

- IATEFL has begun to promote international communication among its international affiliates and their members through the Internet - a powerful new medium which can help to promote international understanding

- IATEFL has also been active in the drafting and promotion of international documents such as the International Declaration of Linguistic Rights.

In addition to underlining her support for the integration of peace and global issues into language teaching, Du Vivier suggested that language teachers involved in global issues consider drawing up a set of textbook content guidelines, similar to the gender guidelines entitled *On Balance* published by the UK Women in TEFL group, which could be submitted to publishers with concrete proposals of how commercial and school textbooks can promote peace and an understanding of global issues.

### Raasch: Peace Through Language Teaching

The fourth speaker, Albert Raasch, pointed out how education, according to the United Nations charter, should aim at promoting human rights, fundamental freedoms and friendship between peoples and nations. Linguistics, he stressed, is a human and ethical tool. Foreign language teaching can help learners to use their linguistic knowledge to foster and develop tolerance, peace and international understanding.

Raasch then proposed a five point model of cultural studies he has devised that describes the basic skills promoted by Linguapax for effective peace education through language teaching. These five competences, he argued, should be integrated into the cultural component of foreign language education.

1. *Cultural competence* - a knowledge of geographical, historical, social and cultural facts about the country or culture of the language being studied. This is the basis for the following levels but is usually all that is taught in current classrooms or textbooks.

2. *Contrastive cultural competence* - the ability to compare and contrast ones own culture with the foreign culture, a fundamental skill of language and cultural understanding. After all, how can you understand another culture if you cannot compare it with your own?

3. *Empathy competence* - We all know from a study of history and politics that it is not sufficient to know that others are different; we have to accept their point of view, schemes of behavior, arugments and decisions. To accept this difference, we have to be able to see the world from the standpoint of others.

4. *Intercultural competence* - the ability to interact skillfully across cultures. This is an application of skills from the first three levels which enable one to successfully interact with those from other cultures for work, negotiations, or cooperative problem solving of global issues.

5. *Intracultural competence* - this fifth and final level is a sense of world citizenship, an awareness of our planet as one world. With this ability, we start to look at other peoples and countries not as foreign but as part of the human family, members of the global village, as one of us rather than asoutsiders.

Through these five competencies, students should thus be enabled (1) to learn about a culture, (2) to compare cultures, (3) to understand the perspective of others, (4) to negotiate across cultures, and (5) to see oneself and others as fellow citizens of one shared world.

### Freudenstein: Peace Education? No, Thank You!

The final panelist, Reinhold Freudenstein, stressed the important role that the modern language classroom has to play in building a world of peace. Despite this, he said, few foreign language teachers include a peace education perspective in their courses. In his talk, he outlined the reasons why teachers find it difficult to deal with peace and global issues in their teaching and gave suggestions about how to integrate a peace education component into the language classroom

Freudenstein first noted the terrible impact of war in this century and the recent 50th anniversary of World War II, a war that lasted only 6 years but that brought death and suffering to millions worldwide. He cited International Red Cross statistics which show that:

- more than 200 wars have been fought since 1945 in which over 40 million people have been killed
- 56 armed conflicts are taking place worldwide involving over 17 million refugees
- 95% of those affected by wars are innocent civilians

Given these facts, he said, it is highly appropriate that the report on the 1991 Linguapax III workshop was entitled *Language Teaching in a World without Peace*. There should be nothing more important today, he asserted, than to work towards peace in the world on all levels, including the modern language classroom, bearing in mind the statement of Pope John Paul II If you want to reach peace, teach peace.

Despite this, Freudenstein noted, few language teachers or students in Europe show much interest in peace education. For his university seminar in peace education, for example, only three students signed up, compared to 60 for such topics as computers in the language classroom. At a teacher training seminar, only one of 200 participants attended his peace education workshop. And in response to his article on peace education and language teaching, an angry teacher wrote to criticize him for dealing with theoretical extras when he should instead be concentrating on teaching students grammar points such as the difference between the past tense and present perfect.

Freudenstein mentioned four reasons for this lack of interest:

1. Europe has been at peace for 50 years since the end of World War II, so European teachers dont see the need for peace education. This means that teachers accept textbook topics such as *Mr. Carter at the Office* rather than chapters on *Hiroshima* or *World Hunger*.

2. Most teachers and textbooks treat the word peace as just another vocabulary item, like butter or cowboy. There is no concept, appeal or exhortation behind the term.

3. Current language teaching methodology is dictated by textbooks approved by ministries of education which concentrate on grammar, translation and literature. While peace and international understanding are praised as educational aims, there is no systematic study and no teacher feels personally responsible for this.

4. The word peace has been misused in the past by socialist regimes in Eastern Europe. The Berlin Wall, for example, was referred to as a peace protection wall by the East German regime. After a half century of seeing peace used in the service of communist ideology, many teachers are wary of peace education.

Finally, Freudenstein outlined three tasks he saw as necessary for changing the present situation:

1. We must continue our attempts to convince our colleagues, and the general public, that peace education is one of the most important challenges and opportunities for enabling the people in our world to live together peacefully. We must strive to introduce this topic in teacher training seminars and publications, in national and local curricula, and in textbooks.

2. We must convince the teaching profession that peace education is linked to our classroom teaching style. More than 90% of all teachers still practise an authoritarian question-and-answer instructional approach based on strict rules of command and obedience which tests knowledge of the correct answer and not what students think. To educate for peace starts with a peaceful educator.

3. We must introduce new classroom activities that truly promote peace. Benjamin Franklin is supposed to have said, Tell me and I forget. Teach me and I remember. Involve me and I learn. In peace education, we are still on level 1 - telling our students about global issues. Some teachers have reached level 2 - teaching about peace using materials from UNESCO and elsewhere for promoting international understanding. We must now work for all students to be involved in peace education activities so that they learn how to build a peaceful world.

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# *Section Seven*
# Final Panel

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# JALT FINAL PANEL
# Crossing Borders: Making Connections

**Kip Cates**
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**Denis Cunningham,** *Victoria School of Languages,* Australia
**Albert Raasch,** *Saarland University,* Germany
**Braj Kachru,** *University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign,* USA
**Carol Rinnert,** *Hiroshima City University,* Japan

This panel, the final session of the conference, addressed the JALT97 conference theme Crossing Borders: Making Connections. The moderator was Kip Cates, coordinator of JALTs Global Issues N-SIG. The four panelists were: (1) Denis Cunningham, secretary of the World Federation of Modern Language Associations (FIPLV), secretary of the Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations (AFMLTA) and organizer of the 1995 UNESCO Linguapax V conference in Australia; (2) Braj Kachru, Center for Advanced Study Professor of Linguistics and Jubilee Professor of Liberal Arts and Sciences at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, USA; (3) Albert Raasch, professor of Applied Linguistics at the University of Saarland, Germany and editor of the 1991 UNESCO Linguapax book Peace through Language Teaching; and (4) Carol Rinnert, JALT96 conference co-chair and Professor of International Studies at Hiroshima City University, Japan.

## Introduction

Kip Cates, the moderator, began the session by outlining the theme of the panel and its focus on borders, barriers and connections. Barriers facing language educators, he said, can be either physical, psychological, geographic, linguistic or educational. As teachers, he said, we often create our own borders by the narrow, unconsidered views we may hold about language teaching and learning. By making connections with new teaching approaches and philosophies, we can move beyond the traditional ABCs of education - Alienation, Boredom and Control. Another border that prevents better language teaching, he said, is the border between disciplines. By making connections with other foreign language teachers - teachers of French, German or Japanese, for example - English language teachers can learn new ideas to improve their teaching. By making connections with other curriculum areas - social studies, science or math - language teachers can promote cross-curriculum cooperation and the integration of meaningful content. And by making connections with fields such as global education and peace education, he said, language teachers can give their work new relevance and inspire their students with a sense of world citizenship and an understanding of global issues.

## Denis Cunningham: A School Model from Australia

The first speaker, Denis Cunningham, began his talk by explaining that the goal of overcoming barriers, crossing borders and making connections can be achieved through successful language teaching and learning. The challenge, he said, is to ensure that our language teaching is effective. When this is the case, the learning of languages by our students will facilitate the objective of overcoming linguistic barriers and enable students to cross those cultural borders which inhibit establishing connections with new peoples, cultures and ways of viewing the world. While accepting that there is value in learning about other peoples, cultures and global issues, Cunningham stressed that it is through thorough and effective language learning that we can successfully arrive at essential intercultural understanding and tolerance, and learn to comprehend the world from anothers linguistic, cultural and personal standpoint.

Cunningham then described a number of initiatives involving his institution, the Victorian School of Languages (VSL), perhaps the largest language school in the world, where over 40 languages are taught to 12,000 students in 636 classes at 29 centres. The languages currently on offer are:

> Albanian, Arabic, Amharic, Bengali, Bosnian, Chinese, Croatian, Czech, Dari, Dutch, Estonian, Farsi, French, German, Hebrew, Hindi, Hungarian, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Khmer, Kurdish, Latvian, Lithuanian, Macedonian, Maltese, Modern Greek, Polish, Portuguese, Pushtu, Russian, Serbian, Sinhala, Slovenian, Spanish, Swedish, Turkish, Ukrainian, Vietnamese (and Latin by distance mode).

With its diversity of cultures, religions, races, and geographical provenances, Cunningham said, VSL is a microcosm of Australian society and an excellent model of inter-racial harmony.

Cunningham explained how, at VSL, several languages are spoken by communities or countries where tension or war - recent or current - strains the reality of peace. The environment of tolerance, harmony and unity within VSL, he said, serves to attenuate or eradicate such tension in students who have recently arrived, or whose parents immigrated some years ago, from less harmonious situations across the globe. He then cited examples which demonstrate, in different ways, the means of tackling tension, confronting conflict and promoting peace to accelerate the acceptance of others.

**Croatian and Serbian** Despite the conflict within the former Yugoslavia and the resulting tension between these two communities in Australia, the VSL has four centres where both these languages are taught side by side, with no appreciable evidence of this global conflict.

**Arabic** VSL offers Arabic language classes as a catalyst for drawing together Arabic and non-Arabic speakers from different countries and even different religions, with Coptic Christians joining Muslims to learn Arabic. One instructor was born in Nazareth, speaks Arabic as a first language, Hebrew as a second language, and is a Christian. She and others defy stereotyping. This particular teacher commented as follows on the role of Arabic language teaching in helping students cross borders and make connections.

In Australia, students from different Arabic backgrounds experience different relationships with each other than those experienced by their parents and relatives in their homelands. Tolerance and acceptance are more likely to be created among our students in Australia. When these students come together for Saturday classes, they notice the differences in dialect and, as they befriend each other, these differences are acknowledged. Friendship on the one hand and common Arabic literacy, traditions and history create among these students a new Arabic unity missed by many of their parents.

**Portuguese** In a senior class of Portuguese, where students are of Portuguese, Australian, East Timorese, Spanish and Italian background, the language learning program prepared by the teacher, Anabela Sobrinho, is based on the following Linguapax themes:

- Cultural Tolerance in a Multicultural Society
- Elimination of Social Discrimination

- Globalisation
- Environmental Awareness
- World Population
- Portuguese Discoveries and Today's Situation -from Greed to Peace?
- Creative Resolution of Domestic and Multicultural Conflicts
- Human Rights

Cunningham concluded by arguing that an approach like that at VSL can create an environment conducive to peace through the teaching of languages in a multilingual, multicultural context.

### Braj Kachru: Uncomfortable Questions

The second panelist, Braj Kachru, raised what he said were two uncomfortable questions that the English teaching profession has generally pushed under the rug.

The first relates to social relevance and the social responsibilities of professionals. It is only very recently that professionals in language-related fields have begun to engage publicly in self-evaluation and in raising issues of an ethical nature. While the practice of self-evaluation is frequently adopted by sister disciplines such as political science and sociology, he said, it is somewhat disturbing that professionals in applied linguistics have been by and large indifferent to these concerns. This ostrich-like attitude, he said, is evident in two ways: first, in the way applied linguists view the applications and effects of the linguistic sciences on the public; second, in the way applied linguists overlook - at least in print - the ethical implications of various endeavors in which the profession is engaged. Kachru touched on the suspicion of the general public towards linguistics in the 1960s and cited Bolinger (1980:1):

> In language, there are no licensed practitioners, but the woods are full of midwives, herbalists, colonic irrigationists, bone setters and general-purpose witch doctors - some abysmally ignorant, others with a rich fund of practical knowledge - whom one shall lump together and call SHAMANS.

He contrasted the ethical issues debated by applied linguists in the 1960s - prescriptivism, usage and standardization - with the current concerns of applied linguistics - power, identity, ideology and control - articulated by scholars such as John Firth, Michael Halliday, Dell Hymes and William Labov. These ethical issues - such as the linguistic power to define and control - are particularly relevant at present given the unprecedented power of one language across cultures when agendas for research are primarily set in Western contexts, a consequence of educational and economic inequalities and of indifference toward Asian and African needs. Studies in these areas are relevant to the traditional concerns of applied linguists: program development, language planning, and curriculum development. By questioning current paradigms and practices, we can address issues related to the roles of professional organizations and their channels of communication (journals, newsletters, conferences). In an ethical sense, he said, linguists have been essentially social side-liners and not social critics.

The second concern Kachru raised relates to what he calls the leaks in applied linguistics. These relate to the identity of the field and its theoretical foundations. They go beyond identity and theory to manifest themselves in applied linguistic research - for example, what Butler terms the ELT empire (Butler, 1996) - and in applied linguistic and ELT professional organizations. These leaks, he said, are of four types:

- **Theoretical leaks:** These refer to the identity crisis of applied linguistics in terms of the characterization and goals of the field. This involves not only conceptualization between the sociological vs. psychological approaches (Halliday vs. Chomsky) but also between the paradigms of applied linguistics generally followed in the USA and the UK.

- **Methodological leaks:** These are of three types. The first involves conceptualizations of speech communities with reference to English, particularly in what has been termed the Third World. This is not merely a question of definitions but relates to societal realism, language use and interaction. types of input, and types of creativity. The second involves indifference towards the sociolinguistic contexts and consumers of applied linguistic research in the developing world. The third relates to the introduction of pedagogical method as the proverbial Procrustean bed: the view that all cultures, all speech communities, all users of language must fit into one mould. This is particularly true of current research on genre analysis and ESP.

- **Pragmatic leaks:** These relate to issues such as linguistic models and their relevance to the contexts of Asia and Africa, and paradigms which result in various types of inequality.
- **Ethical leaks:** For these, we must pay attention to Bolingers warning that truth is a linguistic question, and that ethical values must receive professional attention.

It is rewarding to ask ourselves, Kachru concluded: What are the underlying reasons for our perceptions of a speech community? What are the implications of our descriptive labels? Do some of us use our access to language and cultures with motives which are open to question? These are ethical questions, he said, which the profession at large must address.

### Albert Raasch: A Perspective from Germany

The third panelist, Albert Raasch, began his talk by referring to the panel theme crossing borders and by discussing four different types of border - physical, cultural and psychological - that exist in his native country, Germany. The first type of border, he said, is national borders between countries. In contrast to Japan, an island country, Germany, is a nation of borders, surrounded by nine different countries - France, Switzerland, Austria, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Denmark, Holland, Belgium and Luxembourg. The German awareness of national borders and the role of these borders in shaping German history, culture, society and the German view of foreign peoples and languages, is, therefore, large.

In addition to national borders between countries, Germany is also marked by another type of geographical border - that between regions. The geographical, social and psychological border between the former East Germany and West Germany, Raasch said, constitutes a kind of internal border in now reunified Germany that is reflected in the language learning experience of each region. Another border that exists is the border between different kinds of German citizens, for example, between native-born Germans and newly arrived immigrants from other countries. A fourth kind of border is the border between generations, between the older generation which experienced WWII and the Cold War and the new younger post-Cold War generation of modern Germany. All these borders, whether physical, regional, ethnic or generational, impact on the teaching and learning of foreign languages and on the promotion of mutual understanding. In the same way, language teaching can also help to bridge these various borders between different nations, regions, cultures and generations, and thus work to promote peace.

If we look at education, he said, there is one final border that we must be aware of - the border between teachers and students. Teachers must be aware of the gulf that can exist in the classroom between teachers and learners, and must do their best to bridge that gulf and to see things from the learners perspectives. Raasch concluded by describing a number of European initiatives in cross border exchanges which involved language learning and the promotion of international understanding.

### Carol Rinnert: Crossing Borders, Making Assumptions

The fourth panelist, Carol Rinnert, outlined what she felt were common barriers and important connections for the field of foreign language teaching. She first touched on her role as JALT96 conference organizer and her mixed feelings in choosing the theme: crossing borders. Perhaps, she said, this should have been changed to eliminating borders or making borders fuzzy. She then went on to raise a number of assumptions concerning language teaching and learning which she felt served to create barriers between people and prevent more effective foreign language education. One set of assumptions related to language teaching in Japan while another set was relevant to the academic world generally.

For Japan, Rinnert discussed the following four assumptions:

**Assumption #1**: "Non-Japanese teachers of foreign languages are not qualified to make academic decisions in the Japanese context. This assumption, made by, among others, Japanese school administrators and program coordinators, prevents the active participation of native speaker teachers in program planning and development, and prevents effective cooperation between Japanese and non-Japanese teaching staff.

**Assumption #2**: "Only native English-speaking teachers can teach English conversation". This stereotype, held by members of the general public and by some in the Japanese English teaching establishment, denies capable Japanese and other teachers the chance to teach English communication skills solely on the basis of their nationality. At the same time, it reinforces the widespread belief that learning to communicate with native English speakers is more important than learning to communicate in English with non-native speakers, whereas the reality for a majority of students in Japan increasingly supports the opposite.

**Assumption #3**: Japanese students can never learn fluent English. This belief, held by both Japanese students and teachers, effectively blocks students from ever reaching this goal and results in half-hearted teaching and low motivation.

**Assumption #4**: Non-Japanese learners of Japanese as a foreign language can never learn fluent Japanese. This assumption, the flip side of assumption #3, prevents foreign learners of Japanese from reaching their potential and results in low teacher effort and expectations.

Rinnert went on to look at two additional assumptions that create barriers within the academic community.

**Assumption #5**: Applied linguists cant be serious academics. This belief, the result of academic snobbery by scholars in more theoretical disciplines, ignores the great progress in research and education made in the field of applied linguistics and serves as a justification for conferring low status and low salaries on applied linguists.

**Assumption #6**: Women cant be serious academics. This assumption, still alive today despite the progress made in raising awareness and eliminating sexism in society, prevents women from taking an equal role in academic research and education and denies them the chance to contribute their talents and ideas in the academic world.

Rinnert concluded by mentioning two connections she felt necessary to improve the effectiveness of language learning and intercultural understanding. The first is the connection that needs to be made between classroom language and real language use in the outside world. Too often, she said, classroom teaching tends to focus on language used to illustrate aspects of grammar rather than real uses of the language in communication. The second connection that needs to be made is a shift from stressing cross-cultural differences to acknowledging the human universals that transcend language differences.

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# JALT96: FINAL PANEL

**Remarks by Braj B. Kachru**
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I believe that this concluding panel of JALT 1996 is the right place to raise a few questions and issues—rather uncomfortable ones—which the profession has generally pushed under the rug. I am grateful for this opportunity to share my concerns with you. The following two types of questions come to mind.

The first type of question relates to social *relevance* and social *responsibilities* of the professionals. It is only very recently that the professionals in language-related fields have begun to engage publicly in self-evaluation, in raising what may be called issues of an ethical nature.

This practice of self-evaluation is frequently adopted by a variety of sister disciplines: anthropology, political science, sociology, and even some literature departments. It is, therefore, somewhat disturbing that the professionals in applied linguistics have been by and large indifferent to these concerns. This ostrich-like attitude is evident in two ways: first, in the way applied linguists view the applications and effects of the linguistic sciences on the public; second, in the way applied linguists overlook—at least in print—the ethical implications of various endeavors in which the profession is engaged.

It was only a generation ago, in 1964, during the Structuralist phase in linguistics, that six architects of our discipline in the USA conceded that "a fair portion of highly educated laymen see in linguistics the great enemy of all they hold dear." These six gurus, Charles Ferguson, Morris Halle, Eric Hamp, Archibald Hill, Thomas Sebeok, and William Moulton, have in one role or another been our teachers and readers in their areas of specialization. And now, a generation later, one might ask: Has the situation changed during the past thirty years? Have linguists seriously worked to demonstrate the relevance of their discipline?

Sixteen years after that observation, the venerable Bolinger (1980:1) lamented that:

> In language there are no licensed practitioners, but the woods are full of midwives, herbalists, colonic irrigationists, bone setters and general-purpose witch doctors—some abysmally ignorant, others with a rich fund of practical knowledge—whom one shall lump together and call SHAMANS.

In the 1960s, and earlier, the debate on ethical issues in applying linguistics primarily focused on prescriptivism, usage, and standardization. Consider, for example, the controversies about *Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language, Unabridged*, and other usage volumes. However, during the past three decades, within the new paradigms of the linguistic sciences, we find articulation of theoretical and methodological approaches which are redefining applied linguistics, its foundations, scope, and concerns.

The approaches I have specifically in mind are those of John R. Firth, Michael A. K. Halliday, Dell Hymes, and William Labov, to name just four. The concerns of applied linguistics now rightly include issues of power, identity, ideology, and control.

The recent studies discussing these topic and directly relevant to our profession raise refreshing and stimulating questions about linguistic power—the power to define and the power to control. A detailed bibliography and a state-of-the-art survey is given in Kachru 1994 and 1997.

The ethical questions now being articulated have become especially meaningful in the present context, when there is overwhelming and unprecedented power of one language across cultures, when there is domination of Western research paradigms in the non-Western world, and when agendas for research are primarily outlined and set in the Western contexts. This situation is essentially a consequence of inequalities in education and economic resources and of indifference toward Asian and African research and needs.

I believe that these questions are being raised at just the right time. They provide stimuli for self-evaluation and reflection. And such studies have relevance to some of the traditional concerns of applied linguists: program development, language planning, and curriculum development (See, e.g., Tickoo ed. 1991).

By questioning the current paradigms and practices, we are able to address issues related to the roles of professional organizations and the channels of communication used by the leaders of such organizations (e.g., journals, newsletters, conferences, and conventions).

I hope that what I have said above provides a backdrop against which we can view the significance of this convention. The fact still remains that in an ethical sense, linguists have been, to quote Bolinger again (1973), essentially "social side-liners" and not social critics.

The other concern relates to what I have called earlier the "leaks" in applied linguistics (Kachru 1992). These "leaks" relate to the identity of the field and its theoretical foundations. These leaks go beyond identity and theory, however, and also manifest themselves in applied linguistic research, for example what Butler terms the "ELT empire" (1996), and in other areas of language-related fields. I am also thinking of the professional organizations that are involved in applied linguistics and ELT.

I am using the term "leak" here in more than one sense: to refer to the perceived limitations of the paradigms of applied linguistics, to refer to the overwhelming ideological and methodological biases of the paradigms, and to raise questions concerning ethical issues and professionalism in applied linguistics research. I might be more specific and say that the perceived 'leaks' are of four types: Theoretical, Methodological, Pragmatic, and Ethical. Let me briefly discuss these.

Theoretical leaks: By theoretical leak I mean the identity crisis of applied linguistics: Crisis in terms of characterization of the field and the goals of the *applied* enterprise. This does not involve only conceptualization between the sociological vs. psychological approaches (Halliday vs. Chomsky), but also between the paradigms of applied linguistics as generally followed in the USA and the UK (for further discussion and references see Kachru 1992 and 1996).

Methodological leaks: These are of three types. The first involves conceptualizations of "speech communities," with reference to English, particularly in what has been termed "the Third World." These questions are not merely of definitions but relate to societal realism, to language use and language interaction, to types of input, and to types of creativity. The second involves indifference toward the sociolinguistic contexts and consumers of *applied* research in the developing world. The third relates to the introduction of pedagogical method as the proverbial Procrustian bed: the view that all cultures, all speech communities, all users of language must fit into one mould. This is particularly true of current research on genre analysis and ESP.

Pragmatic leaks: Pragmatic concerns relate to issues such as linguistic models and their relevance to the contexts of Asia and Africa and paradigms which result in various types of inequality. These issues have been discussed in detail in Kachru 1986, Pennycook 1994, Phillipson 1992, Tollefson 1991, and Tsuda 1994a and 1994b.

Ethical leaks: We must pay attention to Bolinger's warning that "truth" is a linguistic question, and ethical values must receive professional attention.

We will agree that all language-related fields are interrelated to various degrees. It is, therefore, rewarding to ask ourselves from time to time: What are the underlying reasons for our perceptions of a speech community? What are the implications of our descriptive labels? And do some of us use our access to language and cultures with motives which are open to question? The questions such self-examination raise are not just attitudinal, methodological, and theoretical: These are ethical questions which the profession at large must address.

The concerns I have expressed are not mutually exclusive. In one way or the other, they contribute to the linguistic *lameness* of those who are the consumers of our theoretical and applied research. And in some way all these relate to our profession—directly or indirectly. All these concerns are of vital importance to the Third World, but they are not exclusively the problems of the Third World. There is an extensive body of studies on this topic from the developed countries. Baugh (1988: 72) gives a moving description of his experiences in the USA (see also Connor-Linton and Adger, eds., 1993). He rightly cautions us that "a similar story could be told in many countries where race and language correspond to social stratification." The concerns, therefore, are common, and the limitations and exploitation of human language are shared across geographical, cultural, linguistic, and political boundaries.

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# Abstracts

## Section One: Introduction

### Crossing Borders: Some Values to Declare

*Julian Edge*

Abstract Not Available

### Opening Borders with World Englishes: Theory in the Classroom

*Braj B. Kachru*

Abstract Not Available

## Section Two: Teacher Development

### Mosaics of Teacher Development and Socialization

*Andrew Barfield, Paul A. Beaufait, Sean Conley, Tim Murphey, & Katsura Haruko*

語学教師教育研究部会第２回年次コロキアムは、教職課程の学生及び現役の教員の所属の教育機関の内外で、あるいはディスタンスラーニングなど、どのような方法で自己研鑽することができるのかを問うものであった。コロキアムではまず、４名の発表者によるポスターセッションが同時進行的におこなわれ、参加者は実際に発表者個別に意見交換を行った。引き続いてグループディスカッション、及び全体討議が行こなわれた。本論文は４名の発表者の内容をまず、1）教職課程の学生が教員になるプロセスについて、2）教員の所属する教育機関がどのように教員を形づくりまた教員が機関を構築していくかについて、3）教員の遠隔教育においてジャーナルを交換することの意義、4）教員養成におけるビデオ録画リスクロギングの効果、を順番で述べたものである。

### Questions about Teaching? Answers from Teachers!

*David Cozy, Atsuko Kashiwagi, Eugenia Medrano-Endo, Christopher Jon Poel, Spencer Weatherly*

５人の発表者は合わせて６０年にわたる教育現場での経験があるが、まだ経験が浅かった頃、身近に様々な質問に答えられる先輩の教師がいなかった事を残念に思っている。例えば、「どうしたら学生に発言をさせる事ができるのか。」といった教室内でのことから、「自分の学校の教育法には賛成できないのだが、どうしたら良いのか。」のような職場に関する質問、また「語学の教室では学生の母国語の使用は一切禁止すべきなのか。」といったより根本的な質問だ。５人が日本で教える事について全てを知りつくしているとは言えないが、このラウンド・テーブルでは、発表者自身が得た経験に基づいて、出席者からの質問に答えていった。

### What Makes a Good Language Lesson (Part 2)

*Stephen M. Ryan*

この研究プロジェクトの第一部（Ryan, 1996）の時に学生５００人以上に次の質問を聞きました：今まで一番良かった英語の授業について書いて下さい。学生の答えをまとめて分析しました。今回の第二部では日本で教えている語学の教師に同じような質問を聞きました。教師の答えもまとめて分析しました。

その結果 を表を使って説明をします。多くの教師がstudent-centered approachを目標にしています。

学生の答えと教師の答えを比べます。学生と教師の意見の間には大きな差が見えますが、研究のやり方にいくつか問題点があって、差が研究のやり方から来ているかもしれません。

今予定している研究プロジェクトの第三部も説明します。

### Understanding Instructions Survey: Less Anxiety, More Interaction

*Duane Kindt*

この調査は、授業中の生徒の不安を取り除くことに重点を置いたプロジェクト、アクションリサーチプロジェクトの一環として始まりました。調査内容は後に改訂されトライデントスクールオブランゲージ（名古屋）の生徒１００人以上を対象に行われました。著者はここに改訂後の調査を紹介し、調査結ā を簡潔に述べるものであります。

### More Students Account for their Poor English skills

*Lana Yuen*

「英会話のはずだったのにあまり会話をしなかった。」これは、大学生が英会話のコースを評価するよう求められたときにしばしば口にする苦情である。「でも私は英

会話を教えてきた。」というのが、この苦情に対し教師が普通示す反応である。なぜ学生と教師の間には英会話の授業で起こることに対して認識に食い違いがあるのだろうか。学生はこの会話の「欠如」の責任がどこにあるとするのだろうか。この認識の食い違いをうめることはできるのだろうか。

この研究では、学生がどのように英会話の授業を認識および評価するかを調査しており、以下の基準に基づいている。教室の環境、教師、テキスト、配布資料、および学生の学習習慣。この研究はアンケートや非公式のインタビューを通して、約二百人の大学生および短大生からデータを収集して完成した。結果奄ı示唆しているのは、学生には英語学習の仮定で積極的な外国語の学習者としての責任を教えるべきだということである。

### Exploring Teacher Education through video *Eric Reynolds & Mark O'Neil*

我々が教師として経験できるもっとも価値あるものの一つとして、教育実習（student teaching）やチームティーチングなどの共同で作る授業があげられる。しかし、残念なことに時間や職場における制約、その他の種々の要因により、このような共同の授業を持つ機会が無いのが実情である。本稿では、『共同授業』の環境を作る一方法としてビデオを使用した教師養成の研修方法を紹介し、その検討結果を報告する。

### Crosscultural Aspects of Teachers Roles *Barbara H. Wright*

Abstract not available

### Materials Writers NSIG Workshop: Professional Critique of Preliminary Textbook Manuscripts *Ian B. Gleadall*

ワークショップに先立ち、国際戦略を展開する4出版社の各編集者は、MWNSIG会員によって書かれた教科書の匿名原稿4編を受け取った。これらの原稿に基づいて、出版社が教科書の出版を検討する際に用いる基準についての話し合いがなされた。限られた時間ではあったが、4編それぞれの原稿の批評が行われた。編集者たちは、出版社の企画によって書かれた原稿もしくは出版社の合意を得た原稿でなければ、通常出版の対象にならないことを指摘した。教科書執筆希望者に対して、出版社の基準に沿って原稿を書くよう助言がなされた。その基準を熟知するには、まず、出版準備段階にある教科書の批評やモニター使用、および他の筆者による教科書の教師用バージョン執筆の経験を積まねばならないとのことであったc

## Section Three: In the Classroom

### Cooperative Learning at the Post-Secondary Level in Japan *Steve McGuire, Patricia Thornton, David Kluge*

日本の教師たちはしばしば克服しがたい障害と思われるものに直面する。開講回数の少ない大クラスの授業と（外国語を学習する上での）学生たちの動機づけの弱さである。これらの問題に対する一つの解決は、学生をグループに分けて学習させることであるが、その場合にも、大クラスでは学生たちに語らせつづけることは困難であり、学生たちの進歩を跡付ける課題が残る。本稿は、こうした問題のいくつかを解決する助けとなる方法として、共同学習を紹介する。第一部は、一方的誤解を含めた共同学習の基礎、共同授業のキーポイント、五つの別種モデルの例への導入部分であり、また共同学習を踏まえて行ったリサーチの結âを簡潔に概観したものである。第二部は、広島でのJALT96学会で行われた討論会の筆記録からの抜書きである。各論題分野の推薦図書は補遺に示した。

### Shared Inquiry Fosters Critical Thinking Skills in EFL Students *Carol Browning, Jerold Halvorsen, Denise Ahlquist*

Abstract not available

### Story Grammar: A Reading and Discussion Strategy *Gregory Strong*

物語の文法 (Story grammer) は、学生が小説を読む際用いる教室内の学習方略です。この論文では物語の文法を、(1) 背景 (setting)、(2) 観点 (point of view)、(3) 葛藤 (conflict)、(4) クライマックス (climax)、(5) 象徴 (symbol)、(6) 皮肉な事態 (irony)、(7) 主題 (theme) の各文学用語から構成しています。学生はこれらの用語を学び、それらをさまざまな物語に適用することを練習します。さらに、先生とクラスメイトが個別に

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読んでいるものに対して、それらの要素を探していきます。

また物語の文法を用いて、小人数のグループ討論に重点をおくことも可能です。物語を読み進めながら、小人数のグループ内で各々の解釈の比較をします。その物語に関して個々の見解を正当化していくのです。これは、学生が単に文法や単語にではなく、物語の意味や構造に焦点を当てることを助けます。学生は先生の独自の解釈を学ぶので、高度な動機付けアプローチと言えます。

### The Use of Japanese Literature in Reading Classes *Sachiko Ikeda*

本稿は、英訳された日本文学を教材とした短期大学での英文講読の授業についての一考察であり、教師の観察と学生からのフィードバックを基に、授業内容、課題、長所、及び短所について述べられている。読解においては、テキストで扱っているトピソクについての知識の有無が、理解の程度を左右するということは周知のことである。日本文学を教材とする利点の一つは、学生が内容についてある程度知っているということであり、知識があれば理解が容易となり、また、興味が深まる。学生に実施したアンケートでは、この授業は大変だったけれど満足できる内容であったと多くの者が答えている。従って、リーディング用教材を決定する場合は、学習者に関連の深いトピックを選択する方がよいと考えられる。さらに、クラスでは、教師の興味、及び関心も学生に大きな影響を与えるので、教える側も内容に興味を持つ必要がある。

### FL Reading and Multi-Media: Psycholinguistic Views *Syuhei Kadota, Masao Tada, Yuko Shimizu, & Shinji Kimura*

本コロキアにおける検討課題は、主に次の４点である。

（１）書かれたテキストの音韻符号化が、読解過程においていかなる役割をâ たしているか？

（２）Chunksに英文を区切ることはどのような効â を日本人英語学習者の読解に与えるか？

（３）スピードリーデイングの指導は、彼らの聴解力などの英語力や読解ストラテジーの形成にいかなる効â があるか？

（４）音声言語教材と視覚言語教材の同時提示は理解力にどう影響するか？また、そこから読解CAIの構築にいかなる示唆が得られるか？

これにより、読解の心理言語学的研究の成âと、実際のクラスルームにおける指導やマルチメデイアを駆使した指導がいかに結び付くか、言い換えると、音韻符号化がリーデングとリスニングをいかに結びつけ、Processing Chunksの形成にいかなる貢献をしているか、そしてひいては学習者の言語処理の多重性とどう関わるか、について今後の展望を得ようとするものである。

### Vocabulary Building with Student Selected Words *Robin Nagano*

学習者一人ひとりの既習語彙は異なっている場合が多い。と同時に、学習者に依って興味のある分野や外国語に対するニーズも当然異なる。そのためクラス全員に共通して有用な語彙を選定し、提示することは困難を極める。またそうすることが学習者の意欲を引き出しているとは言い難い。

そこで本稿では、学習者自身に、学習する語彙を選定させ、語彙習得の訓練をさせる方法を紹介する。学習者は語彙を使えるものにするための様々な情報（例：和訳、コロケーション、位相、文法情報（品詞・活用等）、派生語・類語、連想語、等）を収集し、カードに記入する。その活動を通して、学習者は「語彙の効率的な習得には、和訳だけでは不十分である」ことに気づく。学習者が記入したカードは、学習者同士の小テスト（クイズ）に用い、教師はそれによって語彙の習得状況を把握し、評価に反映することもできる。

### An Analysis of particle usage Ga-O conversion (In Japanese) *Takako Ishida*

In this paper we study how Japanese use "ga" or "o" before the NA -adjective "suki" and "kirai." The surveys were conducted by two questionnaires, one about "suki" (n=504) and the other about "kirai." (n=441). The analysis of the survey findings are:

1) "...was~ga suki" and "...was~ga kirai." can be qualified as a standard usage as it has been before.

2) "...was~o suki" can be regarded as an acceptable usage although it has not been accepted by many traditional Japanese grammarians.

3) The usage of "...wa~ o suki" and

"...wa~ o kirai." is influenced by the object that follows, whether it is animate or inanimate.
4) The acceptability of "...a~o kirai." is less than that of "...wa~o suki。"

### Creating a Writing Environment for Real Beginners *Joyce Roth*

日本の中学生、高校生に第二言語を使ってライティングを教えることは、外国語学習の授業計画において常に何らかの形で取り入れることが可能であるし、またそうでなくてはならないものである。文法を教えることは言語使用の基礎作りに重要であるのに対して、ライティングは生徒が自ら生み出していこうとする意欲を育て、更に学習したことを確認するという絶好の機会を与えてくれる。語彙や文法の知識がまだ乏しい初心者にとっては学習中の言語を使って書くことは大変である。とにかく細心の注意を払いながら何かを作り出すことに一生懸命になる。言語学習においてはこの自主性がとりわけ大切である。また、会話ではなかなか得られないものとして、生徒は書いたものをもう一度見直し、誤りを訂正し、より良いものを作り出すステップを自ら築くことができる。

ライティングには次のような利点もある。つまり、生徒の能力がどんなレベルにあっても、教師はすべての生佳に何かを書かせることが可能であり、書かれたものを通して教師と生徒の間に交流の場ができるということである。生徒は自分を表現するために様々な考えをめぐらしたり、テキストや辞書で疑問点をチェックする特間にも恵まれる。このように、書くことを通して外国語での表現法を学びながら、生徒は自分の経験や感情、そして考えていることを記録するという意義深い機会も同時に持つことになるのである。

### Preparing Students to Write in their Disciplines *Thomas Orr*

短期大学、大学、大学院、専門学校においての学生の学術的そして職業的な要望に密接に関連したESPの作文教育を発展させる方法を紹介する。実例として会津大学での英作文に関する研究及び教育方を述べる。

### Writing and peer Feedback Tasks *Guy Kellogg & L. Scott Rogstad*

外国語の教授方法においては、授業の進行を学生の主体性に委ね、授業中の学生間の交流を活発にすることの価値が強調され続けているのが現在の趨勢である。したがって、クラス運営を成功させるためには、創造的に授業計画を立て、指導する教師の能力がますます重要になってくる。
学生主体の作文演習（例えば、仲間からのフィードバックを含む）では、学生が他の学生の成果に反応することが必要となる。仲間同志の交流を成功させるためには、教師は、影響力があり、かつ建設的な要素を含んだ課題を考え出さなければならない。一例をあげれば、教師が明確で具体的な目的を持った作文課題を考え出せば、学生は仲間の作文がその課題の基準と一致している程度を評定できることになる。その際、教師の役割は、課題を通じて学生を導く、クラスの一種のファシリテイターと考えることができるであろう。

### Conversation Strategies, timed practice, and Noticing in Large Oral Communication Classes *Tom Kenny*

本研究では、1996年度に非英語専攻学生の大人数クラスで週毎に使用されたアクティビティ-の背後にある教授法について述べる。大学1・2年生の学生達は「会話ストラテジー」を繰り返し使用しながら、様々なトピックについて短い時間制限の中で会話の練習をした。また、その会話の中で学生は自分自身及び会話のパートナーのアウトプットについての「気付き（noticing）」をも練習した。さらに、このアクティビティーの各会話の間には、学生たちが気付いた言語インプット及びアウトプットを振り返って話し合う練習も含まれた。またこの教授法の問題点についても言及する。加えて、約200名の学生に対して実施した、学習した会話ストラテジー、時間制限練習、及び「気付き」に関するアンケートの結果も報告する。
本論は1996年JALT広島大会において著著が"Timed practice：The two・minute conversation"という題で発表したものに加筆修正したものである。

### Amaterasu and the Power of Dance in the Classroom *David Bell*

光りの女神「アマテラス」が怒りに満ちて洞穴の中に潜んでしまい、この世の光りが絶えてしまった時、他の神々はダンスの力を借りて彼女を洞穴の外へ誘い出したのであった。このようなダンスの力によって、

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クラスの中でも同様な啓蒙の効果が得られるのであろうか。本稿では、ダンスが非口語と口語との両方におけるコミュニケーションの教授にどのように用いることができるか、ということについて考察してみたい。ダンスは、言語学的な要素の機能的なコントロールを獲得していく手段を提供するのと同じように、英語を母国語とする人たちの特徴でもあるリズミカルな体の動きとジェスチャーを伝える手段としても用いることができる。さらに、ダンスとジェスチャーは、語彙の増強のための心・体のつながりを提供するために組み合わせることも可能である。クラス運営上妨げとなる要素を排除したり、しばしば日本のクラスの特徴であるといわれる沈黙や静けさを打ち破ることによって、言語を習得する上で必要な認知要素を増やすための心身を準備するためにも、ダンスは有効であると考えられる。

### The Process of Revising Tests and Creating Parallel Forms *Alan Hunt & David Beglar*

語学プログラムの集団準拠テストで、より信頼性の高い並行テストを作ることには、以下の様な利点がある。即ち、より公平なテストが実施できることと、指導前・指導後テストが可能となることと、テストにおいて不正の入り込む余地が少なくなることである。本論文では、信頼性を高めるための、集団準拠テストの改訂のやり方と、その並行テストの作り方について論じる。筆者らはこの手順を示すにあたって、the 2,000 Word Level Test（Nation, 1983; Nation, 1990; Schmitt, 1993）のオリジナル版に関する研究で得た統計的データを用いる。テストの信頼性を高めるには、テストの質問数及びテストの長さを決定し、試行テストを実施し、問題の質を分析し、最良の問題を選択することが必要となる。また、並行テストを作成するには、二つのテストの平均と標準偏差ができるだけ同じになるようにし、そして二つのテストの間で、平均、分散及び相関係数の共分散が等しいものであるかどうかを確認する作業が必要である。

### Continuous Assessment Facilitated by CAI *Colin Painter*

本論文は、日本の大学生の授業において、会話能力の継続的な教育評価を、いかにマルチメディアソフトが容易にかつ効果的にするかを示したものである。授業を受けた学生は、その作業に集中できたので、教師は、学生に対し教育学的な指導とテストを行うことができた。また、論文中では、標準達成度判定テストの妥当性についても触れている。さらに、会話を通したコミュニケーションの機会と、試験の点数で表現される達成度との関係も明らかにされた。

## Section Four: Using Technology in the Classroom

### Concept-Acquisition: Tapping the Internet for Ideas *Jack Kimball*

インターネットを通して集めた資料を用いて大学の語学教育を行なうならばどんなメリットがあるだろうか。一番大きなメリットは授業を活発にし、これまでの教授法を改良をすることができるかもしれないということである。本論では、インターネットを利用した語学教育は言語習得と語の概念理解に大いに役立つということを証明したい。

### Making reading more Manageable-the choice Offered by On-line Newspapers and Magazines *Anthony Robins*

（要旨）

どのような要件がより効果的なリーディングを可能にするか、特に、学習者の意欲を最大限に高める必要を考えて、リーディングの背景を考察するのが、本論の第一のねらいである。

言語学習の他の領域がそうであるように、個々の学習者に、より多くの選択を与えることにより、読み方においても、より大きな効果をあげることができる。現在インターネット上で、広範囲に見ることができる新聞や、雑誌は、いわゆる従来の「生」の資料としての利点にくわえて、更に、選択の為の豊富な機会を提供してくれると同時に、学生達の意欲を高めてくれるような資料の適用を可能にするものである。

資料や個々の記事をどのように選択していくか、また、学生達の意見を、調査やフィードバックによって、どのように取り入れていくか等の問題について、ここで考察する。

### Computerized Test and Material Production *John Bauman*

作成した教材のコンピューターシステムへ

の保存とその利点を活用し、教材を一から作成することなしに効果的に再編集し、新たな教材へ生かす法。

### Designing genre-based materials to Use with Videos *Damian Lucantonio*

　この研究会は、ビデオを使用して教材をデザインすることにより、ジャンルを基本とした取り組み方を中心としました。初めに、参加者は、言語教育についての基本的なジャンル論やその適用の仕方について紹介され、これに従って、いくつかのサンプル教材を検証し、それを手本にしながら、自分自身の教材をデザインしていきました。特に中心となったのは、映画やロックミュージックのような生徒から大変高い関心のあるビデオの使用でした。最後に、研究会の間に出てきた、利点、不利点について、参加者と一緒に討論が行われました。

### Content Video in the EFL Classroom *Michael Furmanovsky*

日本の大学で、現在　内容重視のクラスが次第に増える中、大部分の他国の大学で講義されている内容重視の典型となるEAPクラスが、クラスの準備をしてこなかった生徒、又は、特に興味を持っていない生徒にあう内容重視のグラスにある意味でどのように形造って行くのかを考える重要性がある。

論理的には、言語習得が日本において、非言語に関連する文化、地域研究の自的と同格にされるなら、その学術的方法を見いだし、又EFLやEAPクラスを専門的に統合した方法論を構想させるように取り掛かる必要性がある。

この論文は、他の学問で通常使用される可能性のある典拠のあるビデオを発話活動を中心としたEFLクラスにおいて、どのように取り入れたかを示している。

使用したビデオは、ドキュメンタリー、映画からコマーシャル（政治的プロパガンダや公共事業声明など）に及ぶ。

## Section Five: Culture

### Towards True Multiculturalism: Ideas for Teachers *Brian McVeigh*

確かに多種類文化主義の目的は重要で価値がある。しかし本物の多種類文化の意味について誤解が多い。特にある用語は不注意に、区別なしに使用されているので、その結果、概念の混乱が生じている。以下、私はたびたび誤解された用語に焦点をしぼりたい。（1）民族性：社会化／文化化によって獲得された自己のアイデンティティーと集団付属に関する知識、（2）国籍：一般に国民国家として定義された政治組織に所属、（3）人種：身体の外見に基づいた分類、（4）文化：芸術としての文化と知識としての文化を識別すべきである。この用語は根本的に、概念的にも違って、分りやすい意味であるにもかかわらず、よく混乱されるので、人間の相違性についての見識のない見方が結果として生じている。学生たちにこの区別の大切さを教える事は本物の多種類文化主義と人間の相違の理解を作り上げることの第一歩である。

### Comparing Cultures through Critical Thinking: Development and Interpretations of Meaningful Observations *Laurel D. Kamada*

学生が彼ら自身の学習に対する責任をとるという環境の必要性に答えるため、日本の大学の比較文化クラスのカリキュラムを単に西洋の文化の違いに紹介されることよりも、ものを観察すること、考えること、評価することによって学生が基礎的な方法論を身に付けるように工夫した。学生には自己民族中心的あるいは紋切り型な観点を持っていることを意識し、それを克服するテクニックが必要である。それに関係がある教室活動の例が、提示される。最初の授業の初めに学生に５分間位で世界地図を描くよう指示する。それから、彼らに自分でかいた世界と日本（日本は中心で大き過ぎでかかれることが多い）の自己民族中心的な解釈を認識させる。それから世界中の他の地図解釈を見せる。パネルデイスカッションで、学生がロールプレーイング法で決まった役の考え方を守りながら、別の考え方も理解し歩みよりができるようになることが示される。

### Authority and Individualism in Japan and the USA *Alisa Woodring*

本稿では、日米両国の大学生の心理的傾向を権威と個人主義度の点から考察する。各国１００名以上の学生に対し、Geert Hofstede（ガート・ホッフステダ）の "4-D Model of Cultural Difference" を用いたアンケートを実施し、 Power Distance （権力の

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差）ダイメンションと Individualism（個人主義）ダイメンションを調査した。　結果として、両国の学生は学生教師間に於いては力の平等さを、学生同士間に於いては自主的な信念と行動を好むことが明らかになった。　ホッフステダ（１９８０）の所見や日本人学生に対する一般的な固定概念とは異なる結果となったが、収入格差の増大、国内総生産の増加、民族の多様化などによる説明が可能性として考究される。

本研究は、教師が学生に対する既成概念を疑問視することにより教授法を改善できることを示唆するものである。

### Study Trip to France (in French) *Alain Lauffenburger*

新しい言語や文化を確実に獲得するためにその国に滞在することが不可欠であることは一般的に知られている。ある学校では、海外語学研修がそのカリキユラムの一環になっており、その肯定的な効　の報告もあるが、学生や教師の個人的自発的な行為に任せている学校もある。筆者が今まで3年間フランス語を教授してきた鹿児島純心女子大学は、この後者の部類に当たる。筆者は、日本人アシスタントの補助を得て、1996年の春季休業中にフランス国ストラスブール市に学生のための5週間フランス語学研修を計画した。5人の2年次生が参加した. 研修前と後のフランス語能力テスト、学生自身の白己評価、またかかわったすべての関係者の評価によると、今回の研修旅行で、全体的に確実な効果があがったことが確認されたが、同時に、この様な形の研修旅行の限界も教えられた。この様な研修旅行は続けられるべきであるが、カリキュラムに組み入れたり、フランスでの長期滞在を取り入れたりなど、改善の必要があろう。

### Everything you Need to Know Begins at Kindergarten *Laura MacGregor*

この論稿は、生徒理解が語学教師の生徒への貢献により役立つという前提に立っている。生徒理解は大別すると、生徒の(1) 文化的背景、（2）社会的および教育的背景、（3）個人的および家庭的背景の理解に分かれる。この論稿中の「生徒への貢献」とは、「英語学習に肯定的な環境を創り出すこと」という意味である。

第一の分野である文化的背景は、比較的容易に教授に生かすことができるが、しばしば見落とされる二番目のカテゴリー、社会的・教育的背景は、若年層とのかかわりがなければ理解は難しい。この点についての洞察を得るには、日本人生徒の社会生活適応のための訓練過程と教育的背景を、小学校入学以前の経験に見るべきであろう。

この論稿は、筆者が早期英語教育にかかわった静修附属幼稚園での生活に見る五つの側面と、それをどのように短期大学での英語の授業に結び付けているかをまとめたものである。

### Native Americans and Europeans, Ainu and Wajin: Culturally relevant EFL Content-Based Social Studies Comparative History Design at a Japanese Junior College

*Robert E. Gettings*

本論文では英語による一般教育の歴史のカリキュラム・デザインとそれを受講する学生の文化的アイデンティティーの関連について検証する。その中でPaulo FreireとBell Hooksの教育アプローチを応用する。授業の現場は教員と学生の国籍アイデンティティーを越えて、ジェンダー、階級、人種、民族性や年齢が絡み合った複雑な文化の縄目と言える。クラスの中での対話が進むにつれて、教員はそれぞれの人の文化的背景を検証し、それに合うようにカリキュラムを調整していく. 北米と北海道における先住民族と植民者のコンタクトに関するユニットを取り上げて検証する。

### Folklore in the ESL Classroom

*Virginia A. Jenkins*

民間伝承〈folklore）の本質は情報の伝達にあり、言葉、料理、慣習、物語、神話、伝説（言い伝え）、迷信、儀式、なぞなぞ、遊び、そして芸術など無数の方法で表現される。また民間伝承は、聴き、感じ、歌い、書き、話し、そしてある時には食べることを意味し、言語と同様に、人間の生活において意味あるものである限りは持続し、「時空を超えて広がる（世代間に受け継がれ、ある地域から他の地域へと拡散する）」〈Georgesand Jones,1995）。さらに民間伝承は時代の変化にも適応する。このことを証明する例にはタイのモン族（Hmong）のカラフルな刺繍を施した花模様のキルト、Pandauがある。これは元来一族で人生の節目節目に装飾品として掲げられたものだが、後に花模様ではなく、モン族がベトナム戦争末期に命を賭けてメコン川を渡った際の恐怖の脱出を詳細に描くも

のとなった（Conquergood, 1992）。

さらに民間伝承に関して確かなことは、民間伝承は移動可能な文化のモザイクであり、その民間伝承をつくりあげた様々な民族が持つ伝統と、彼らの出身地や移住先の地方の伝統とを映し出すことである。スコットランドと英国を発祥とするJack Talesは、アパラチア地方において子供達に望ましい行動の規範を教えるために使われた。また物語作家Ray Hicksの"Whickity Whack：Death in a Sack"を通して、子供達は自給自足と、そして階層の区別がある社会体制の中にありながら他人に対する公正の精神を学んだ。（Higgs, Manning, and Miller, 1995）。またアリゾナのネイティブ・アメリカン、ホピ族の創世記に見られるように、民間伝承の存続によって生や平和、調和などに対する価値観も維持されるのである（Wilson, 1994〉。

この論考においては、第二言語としての英語教授と異文化間コミュニケーションにおける民間伝承の有用性に焦点をあてる。そのためにリスニング、リ-ディング、ライティング、セピ-キングの個々の活動をデザインしたり、あるいはそれらを統合したりする出発点としての民間伝承の活用法を提案する。これはデザイン的には一見して教授目的のためのつくりものに見えがちだが、実際はコミュニケ-ションを重視した、独創的な授業へと発展させられるものである。また視覚教材や民話の授業への取り入れ方や、異文化理解に関連する要素をふんだんに含んだ民話もいくつか紹介したい。

### Redefining our Educational Parameters with the Model United Nations
*Eton F. Churchill, Jr.*

模擬国連は、参加者に文化の壁を越えて理解する方向へ導くことができるということを広く認めらていますが、EFLの教育の構成の枠を越えることに関しては、まだ十分理解されていません。この記事は、どのようにして模擬国連が、１９９６年の会議で述べたような、多くの壁を越えるための手段となるのかを説明しています。

模擬国連では、EFLの生徒たちが、世界の英語圏のスピーカーと直接連絡を取り合うことができ、また生徒と教員が学校の壁を越えて、学際的なジグソー　アクティビティをして情報を探すように促進します。

そういうものとして、模擬国連は、１９９６年の広島会議においてリングアパックス　カチュール先生によって持ち出された論点に対する一つの答えとなるでしょう。

### Commonly Asked Global Issues Questions
*Jessica Newby Kawata, David Peaty, Donna McInnis, & Junko Mukainakano*

今回の発表の中心的な課題は、地理学が国際問題を教える、あるいは学ぶ上で、統合的な役割を果たすのではないかということである。学生が、問題となっている地域になじむことができなかったら、それを完全に理解することは難しいであろう。地理学を国際問題の授業に含めることの根拠と地理的な知識を促す活動について考えてみることにする。

### Geography in the Global Issues Classroom
*Jessica Newby Kawata*

EFLの授業で国際問題を扱うことに関して問われている、4つの主要な課題について述べる。どのように、国際問題を、ありふれたものでなく、興味深い問題と捉えさせることができるか、どのようにして学習者中心の授業にできるか、どのようにその授業を評価できるか、そしてEFLの授業で国際問題に関する生の資料を教材として使うことができるか、以上の4点である。

### Gender Issues in Language Education
*Thomas Hardy, Amy Yamashiro, Cheiron McMahill*

筆者は、ジェンダーが英語の授業となる三つのやり方、ジェンダーのディスカッション及び教育方法との関連・日米のジェンダーの不平等を比較できる題材を授業に提供・日本のジェンダーの平等のために、教育、社会の構造的障害に抵抗する草の根フェミニスト達の英語教育を、この構文で述べる。

### Culture, Variation, and English Language Education
*Yamuna Kachru*

Abstract not Available

## Section Six: Linguapax

### UNESCO Linguapax at JALT96
*Kip Cates*

ここではユネスコとリングアパックス・プログラムについて解説し、その目的や活動について述べ、JALT96に参加したリングア

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パックス代表団の横顔を紹介し、JALTでのリングアパックス関係の会議の模様について概説し、更に広島で設立されたリングアパックス・アジアネットワークについて説明する。

### Language Education for World Peace
*Felix Marti*

言語教育は平和のための教育を育てるための理想的な手段である。単一言語の国においては、異なるものへの理解を促進し、異文化に対して心を開かせることができる。多文化の国においては、言語上の多様性や少数派の人々が使う言語を尊重することを学ばせることができる。この基調講演は私達の地球村が直面している挑戦について概説し、近年取り上げられるようになった「平和の文化」を様々な角度から考察し、リングアパックスとユネスコが国際理解と寛容を促進するために行っている仕事について説明する。更に、語学教師が世界平和への貢献のために果たすことのできる役割についても論じる。

### Linguapax, Language Learning and Technology *Denis Cunningham*

寛容と平和はユネスコのリングアパックスプロジェクトが押し進めてきた言語教育の基本的な目標である。しかしながら、教師の不足や身近な言語学習プログラムがないということから、生徒が言語学習を通しての異文化理解という恩恵を被ることができないことも多い。この論文はオーストラリアの言語教育という環境の中で、通常の手段では第二言語を学ぶ場がない学生に、オーディオグラフィックス、相互に交流のできる衛星放送、インターネットなどというような新しいテクノロジーによるメディアを使って、どのようにして言語学習や寛容、平和についての理解を深める事ができるかを示している。

### Modern Language Teaching after the Year 2000 *Reinhold Freudenstein*

ヨーロッパの学校における外国語教育／学習は過去100年間あまり変わっていない。しかし調査によれば、学校を卒業した者が学校で勉強した言語でコミュニケーションができないということに変わりはない。従って、21世紀には新しい言語政策が必要とされる。この論文では学校における外国語教育が効果的でない理由を概説し、学校における言語政策を改善するための以下の6つのガイドラインを述べる。1）言語教育は小学校のレベルで始める。2）全ての学校はバイリンガルとする。3）学校で教える言語の数を増やす。4）全ての子供が少なくとも2つの外国語を学習する。5）授業の時間を減らす。6）「普通」の教室での語学教師はネイティブ・スピーカーとする。

### Colloquium: Linguapax, Language Teaching and Peace Education *Kip Cates, Felix Marti, Denis Cunningham, Madeleine du Vivier, Albert Raasch, & Reinhold Freudenstein*

学習者により良い世界を作るために努力したいと思わせるような効果的な語学コースを作ることを目的としてグローバル教育や平和教育のような新しい分野に足を踏み入れる教師の数は年々増えている。このコロキユイアムではユネスコのリングアパックス プロジェクトの中心的メンバーを集め、外国語教師がそのその仕事を通して世界平和や異なる民族、文化、国家の間の理解を促進するためにはどうすればよいかを考える。

## Section Seven: Final Panel

### JALT Final Panel Crossing Borders: Making Connections *Kip Cates, Denis Cunningham, Albert Raasch, Braj B. Kachru, & Carol Rinnert*

言語教育または言語学習を成功させるには、障害を克服し、境界を越え、つながりを持つ事が要求される。例えば、外国語を学ぶには、新しい人々や考え方に触れるために言語的な障害を乗り越え、文化的な境界を越えることが必要になる。最後のセッションとなるこのJALT96ファイナル・パネルでは専門家達が語学教師が直面する障害の主なものは何か、越えねばならない境界とは何か、国際理解を促進するような効果的な言語教育を達成するためにどのようなつながりを持たねばならないかについて話し合った。

### JALT96: Final Panel *Braj B. Kachru*

Abstract not Available

# *JALT Journal* Call for Papers

The editors of the *JALT Journal*, the research journal of the Japan Association for Language Teaching, seek practical and theoretical articles concerned with foreign language teaching and learning in Japanese, Asian, and international contexts. The *JALT Journal* welcomes well written contributions which provide readers with a link between theoretical and practical issues, especially those addressing current concerns in pedagogy, methods, and applied linguistics.

The editors encourage submission of full-length articles, short research reports, book and media reviews, essays on trends in language education, reports of pedagogical techniques which are thoroughly framed in theory and supported by descriptive or empirical data, and comments on previously published *JALT Journal* articles. Articles should be written with a general audience of language educators in mind, with statistical techniques and unfamiliar terms clearly explained or defined.

The *JALT Journal* uses the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 4th edition*. Submit three copies of manuscripts, with author references removed, along with a cover sheet containing an abstract, author names and brief biographies.

Requests for Submission Guidelines should be addressed in English to: Sandra Fotos, *JALT Journal* Editor (incoming), Senshu University, 2-1-1 Higashi Mita, Tama-ku, Kawasaki, Kanagawa 214 Japan. Requests for Japanese-language Submission Guidelines should be addressed to: Naoko Aoki, *JALT Journal* Japanese-language Editor, Shizuoka University, Department of Education, 836 Oya, Shizuoka 422 Japan

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# *On JALT96: Crossing Borders*

The Japan Association for Language Teaching, perhaps Asia's largest professional language teaching organization, is proud to offer *On JALT96: Crossing Borders* to the language teaching community. JALT hosts the largest annual international conference in the region on language teaching and learning, bringing noted scholars and teacher trainers to Japan from around the world, and offering more than 250 presentations on the art and craft of language teaching as well as leading edge research in the field.

*On JALT96: Crossing Borders*, brings to language educators a snapshot of the conference highlights. The editors have compiled a wide-range of articles grouped into thematic areas covering topics such as teacher development, classroom practice, technology in the classroom, and culture. There is also an introductory section with articles by two of the plenary speakers, Julian Edge and Braj B. Kachru, and a section devoted to the UNESCO Linguapax delegation that was a special part of JALT96.

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